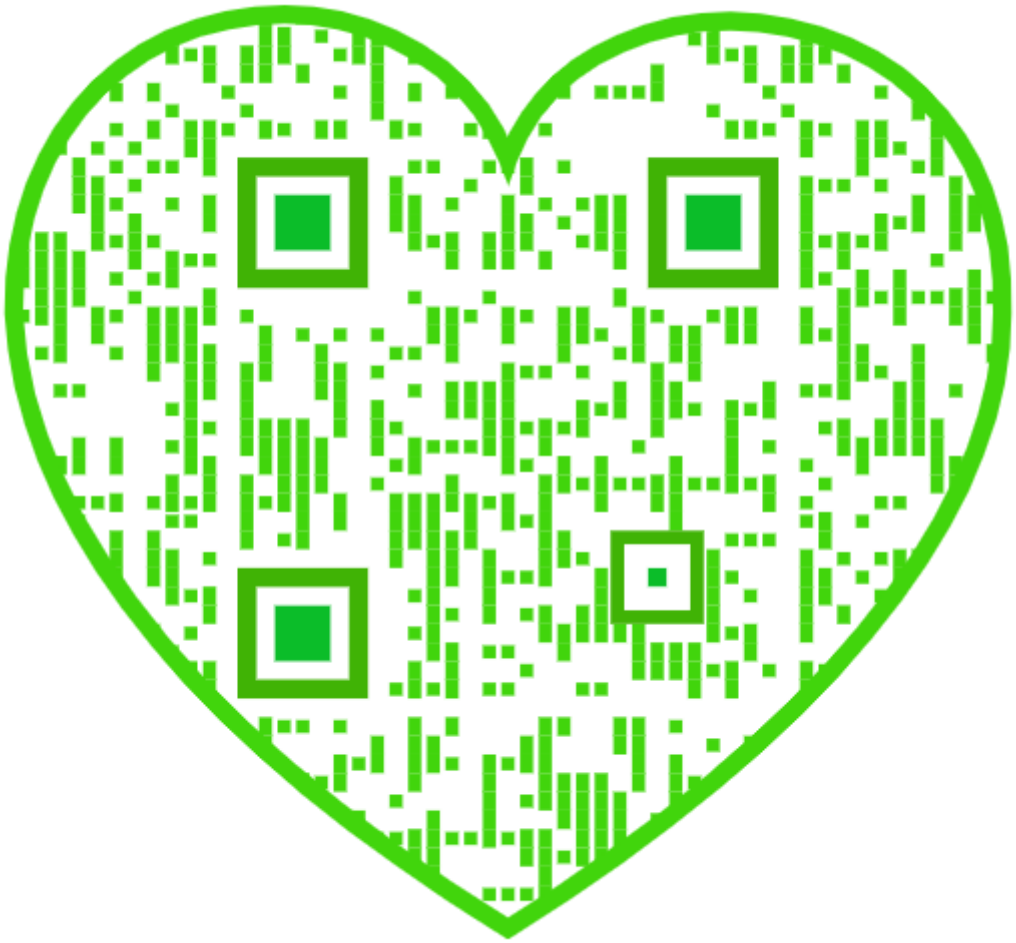

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WINE AND SPIRITS

WINE AND SPIRITS

THE CONNOISSEUR'S
:: :: TEXTBOOK :: ::

BY

ANDRÉ L. SIMON

LONDON
DUCKWORTH & CO.
HENRIETTA ST. COVENT GARDEN

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Published 1919

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INTRODUCTION

WHATEVER use or misuse we make of our chances; whatever odds are against us in our struggle for existence; whatever share of the world's good things is ours; whatever aims and ambitions we cherish; we have both to work and play, fight and rest, spend our strength and recuperate.

The amount and the quality of work which we are able to do, as well as the extent and degree of enjoyment which we derive from life, depend to a considerable extent upon the quantity and quality of our food and drink.

The speed of a liner is due to its design and engines in the first place, but the quality of the fuel used is also most important.

Of all laws which govern the human race there is none more universal than that man shall eat and drink. Was there ever a subject of greater personal interest, in all times and

amongst all nations, than the study of our food and beverages? Our bodily health, disposition of temper, brain power, physical energy, moral courage, intellectual activity, all are affected in a marked degree by what we eat and in much more striking manner by what we drink.

Wine is " par excellence " the food of the brain; this is as true to-day as it was at the beginning of the world's history and as it has been ever since amongst all nations and under all climates.

Long before the world we live in had become habitable, the vine flourished and bore fruit; vine leaves, pips and tendrils abound in all the earliest strata of the earth's crust. Specimens, which palæontologists ascribe to the tertiary period, have been found in such widely different parts of the world as Iceland, Champagne, Alaska, the Rhone Valley, Japan, Devonshire, Wyoming (U.S.A.) and Central Europe.

At a later date, when man made his first appearance upon the earth, he found the vine growing wild everywhere and among the

human remains of the neolithic period which have been unearthed, grape pips have not only been identified, but in such numbers and in so compact a mass that there can be no doubt that prehistoric man did press and make a beverage out of the wild grapes which he was able to gather.

Mythology, the only link between prehistoric and historical times, abounds with proofs of the ubiquity of the fruitful vine and of the antiquity of mankind's appreciation of wine.

The god of wine, who was credited with having taught men how to tend the vine and how to make wine, was worshipped from the earliest times and in all countries ot which we have records. The *Soma* of the Aryans, the *Spandaramet* of the Armenians, the *Sabazios* of the Phrygians, the *Moloch* of the Syrians, the *Orotal* of the Egyptians, the *Dionysos* of the Greeks and the *Bacchus* of the Romans were, under different names, the representation of the same idea, the expression of the same universal feeling of gratitude towards the Giver of that most marvellous gift : Wine !

WINE AND SPIRITS

If we turn to the oldest written record of the world's history, the Bible, we find mentions of the fruitful vine at almost every page. Many also are the references to wine, strong drink and liqueurs, " Yayin," " Schechar," " Tirosh," " Soveh," " Ahsis," " Khemer," " Khometz," and " Shemahrin."

Yayin was the most common name for wine ; it is the word used to designate the wine which Noah drank when he became drunken ; which Melchizedek brought forth to Abraham ; which was prescribed in the drink offerings ; which is said to be a " mocker," and yet which " maketh glad the heart of man " ; which brings " woe " to him who drinks unreasonably, but of which it is also said : " Drink thy wine with a merry heart."

Tirosh is translated either by " wine " or " new wine."

Schechar meant a strong and inebriating drink and is sometimes used in opposition to " Yayin " and " Tirosh."

Khemer and its Chaldean form *Khamar*

were poetical names for wine, the " blood of the grape."

Ahsis was a wine mixed with fragrant herbs or otherwise aromatised.

Mesech meant a blend of wines or other drinks.

Khometz was sour wine or vinegar.

Soveh and *Mimsach* meant either wine or liquor, and *Shemahrin* was the clear wine drawn off its lees.

In Egypt, we have more than mere tradition to rely upon for records of the greatest antiquity. Delchevalerie, in his " Illustration Horticole," depicts the scenes of grape-gathering and wine-making which ornament the tomb of Phtah-Hotep, who lived in Memphis some four thousand years before Christ. Pickering, in his " Chronological History of Plants," has reproduced similar glyptic illustrations which he ascribes to the Third Egyptian Dynasty, adding that other representations of vineyards and full details of the art of wine-making belong to the Fourth, Seventeenth, and Eighteenth Dynasties. Quite recently, the laws of Khammurabi,

King of Babylon about 2250 B.C., have been discovered and deciphered, and have aroused a great deal of interest. This sovereign appears to have been the great legislator of his dynasty; his laws contain the most precise regulations concerning the sale of wine, and show us the poor retailer of wine to have been harassed by a very severe legislation even in those times. Fines were not in vogue then, but the loss of a limb or of life was the penalty incurred by the seller of wine who gave bad quality or short measure or allowed riotous conduct on his premises.

From the Caucasus to the Bosphorus, the whole of Asia Minor used to be but one vast vineyard. The same may be said of Greece and of all the islands of the Ionian and Ægean seas. Homer and all the Greek and Roman poets have sung the praises of the vintages of Thrace, Macedonia and Bœotia, of Cyprus, Chios and Lemnos.

Italy imported for a long time from Greece and the Greek islands large quantities of wine, her own vineyards producing but common

beverage wines, which no patrician deemed worthy of his cellar. It was only after Rome had conquered Greece that better cultivation of her own vineyards and improved methods of wine-making gained for Italian vintages a reputation second to none. Other lands and other times may have produced wines equal to and perchance better than the Falernian nectar, but no other vintage was ever praised with such unmeasured enthusiasm nor by such illustrious poets, historians, princes, and philosophers.

The Phœnicians, Greeks and Romans of old appear to have all realised the civilising influence of viticulture. Wherever they obtained a sufficiently secure footing in a new country, they taught the " Barbarians " to plant and tend vines. At a later date, the same policy was followed by the early Christian missionaries who, wherever they went and whenever they were able to build a church or a monastery as a permanent abode, taught the heathens the gentle art of viticulture. Some of the choicest vineyards of France and Germany retain to this day

names recalling their ecclesiastical origin. In Britain, too, it was the early Christian priests who taught the Saxons how to grow vines where no other crop could be raised, and, under their guidance, vineyards were planted not only on Kentish chalk and Surrey gravel, but in almost every part of the country, as far north as Scotland.

In more recent times, it was the successors of those early Christian priests who also taught the art of viticulture all along the Pacific coast, from California and Mexico to Peru and Chili.

Many have been the vicissitudes of the vine throughout the world's history.

Times out of number kings or prophets have decreed that the vine should be uprooted and wine forsaken; only twice have such orders been carried out, once in the seventh century at the bidding of Mohammed, and another time in the fourteenth century, in China. In each case the result has been the same: the Saracens had conquered the whole of northern Africa, mastered and civilised Spain, crossed the Pyrenees and

threatened to overrun the whole of France when their energy ebbed away, and they were thrown back over the Pyrenees and across the Straits of Gibraltar.

Two centuries of teetotalism rendered them unfit to resist races whose vigour remained unimpaired after ten centuries of drunkenness.

The same thing happened in China, once an immense and flourishing vineyard, the home of refinement and of all the arts. Deprived of alcohol, the inhabitants sought a substitute; poppy fields replaced the vineyards and opium killed the artistic genius, the lively imagination and unparalleled industry of a race which, under the gentle influence of wine, had attained a high degree of civilisation at a very early date.

Ever since, water drinking races have been and still are under the rule or at the mercy of hard drinking and more energetic races. For the third time, after another cycle of seven centuries, another large number of individuals, not of one race but a blend of many, the people of the United States of

America, have decided to make the same experiment as Mohammed and China made seven and fourteen centuries ago. If they persevere, it will be interesting to watch the results which will follow in a few generations to come. Time will tell. The women of America, whose vote, it is said, has carried this drastic measure, might have paused and hesitated had they read even but the following extract from the admirable "Address on Drunkenness" delivered before the Midland Medical Society by Dr. Charles Mercier.

"A world of total abstainers might be a decorous world, a virtuous world, a world perhaps a little too conscious of its own merits; but there is no reason to suppose that it would be an uncontentious or unprejudiced world, or a world from which exaggeration of statement, intemperance in speech, or intolerance of opinion would be banished; and there is some evidence to make us anxious lest it should be a drab, inartistic, undecorated world; a world without poetry, without music, without painting,

without romance; utterly destitute of humour; taking sadly what pleasures it allowed itself; and rather priding itself on its indifference to the charms of wine, woman and song."

I : PORT

THERE was many a wise head set a-shaking when railroads were first laid; many had grave misgivings, few only had faith. When motor-cars first raised the dust of country lanes, they were cursed by some, but welcomed by most. Then came the flying machines, which we all hailed with unbounded enthusiasm long before we could guess the brilliant future that was before them. Modern Science may now claim to have conquered not only the elements but the human mind also; few understand, but all accept as solid facts wireless telegraphy and many more wonderful inventions, and we reward with gold and honours scientists who would have been burned at the stake as wizards in the "good old days."

It would be both idle and unfair not to admit the victory of modern Science, but

too many forget that it has been gained, like all victories, at the cost of heavy sacrifices. Space and time are almost conquered by marvellous mechanical contrivances, but the price we have had to pay is the loss to a very large extent of the art of conversation, of the appreciation of literary and intellectual pleasures, and of that keen sense of humour which used to be such a feature of the English character.

How pleased they must be that they lived not in an age of progress such as ours—the Pepys, Evelyns, Popes, Swifts, Addisons, Steeles, Drydens, and a hundred more essayists, dramatists, wits, and mere men about town, who never drove a car and never played golf! We may marvel at the considerable time spent in taverns by the poets, politicians, and men of undoubtedly brilliant intellect who gave such lustre to the arts and letters in England during the eighteenth century! But it was that constant exchange of views and opinions, prompted by the generous influence of a generous wine, which trained men to have opinions of their own, and to express

them courteously and convincingly; it was the blood of the grape that they drank together which taught them to understand human nature so well, and to feel so keenly its pathos and humour. They troubled less about their muscles and liver than we do, but they fed their brain and exercised it far more than we do. We strive chiefly to please ourselves; they sought first to give pleasure to others; we drink barley-water and are wise; they drank Port and were unwisely generous, witty, daring or obstinate.

Both Pitt and Fox died at a premature age, but some say that they worked too much, whilst others say that they drank too much Port. There is a good deal of truth in both statements; hard drinking and hard work were often the rule a hundred years ago, and excesses of any kind have never been the best means to attain old age. There is little doubt that if Pitt had not been addicted to Port, but had been a keen golfer instead, he would have arrived at a compromise with Napoleon, helping him, if need be, to conquer the whole of the Continent

in return for cheap food at home and peaceful week-ends on the links. Happily for the history of Europe and of England, Pitt drank Port!

Port is of all wines the most interesting for an Englishman. Quite apart from its own intrinsic merits, Port is a wine which owes its existence chiefly to the industry of Englishmen. Furthermore, it is a wine which cannot be drunk to such perfection nor be so thoroughly appreciated anywhere in the world as in England.

Although authenticated shipments of wine from Portugal to England may be traced to the fourteenth century, it was only during the latter part of the sixteenth century that the trade between England and Oporto became regular and fairly important. At that time, some adventurous West Country merchants, most of them Devonshire men, went to Oporto and Lisbon and settled there; their principal business was to buy locally and send to England the produce of the vast empire of Brazil, lately discovered by the Portuguese and closed by them to the trade of all other nations.

During the seventeenth century, the English fleets cruising in the Atlantic were repeatedly ordered to repair either to Oporto or Lisbon, and there take on board large quantities of wine for the use of the men. Rum was not known then, and all men-of-war crews had a daily allowance of wine. Such orders for the fleet helped to induce the English merchants at Oporto to devote their spare time to viticulture and to planting more vineyards along the sun-baked hills of the Douro valley.

The Portuguese wine-growers were then, and for many years afterwards, totally different from the intelligent and hard-working growers of France. A most ignorant class, they had neither the means nor the wish to find a foreign market for their wines; they were plagued with the most corrupt and despicable officials, who were altogether incapable of educating them, of improving their condition, or of protecting their interests. Under these circumstances, the first Englishmen who settled at Oporto were able to obtain from the growers, at ridiculously low prices, wines which they could sell easily and profitably

in England. This encouraged them to stay and to devote much trouble, time and money to the extension and proper care of vineyards. Both Charles II and William of Orange prohibited the import of French wines into England, and greatly helped thereby the rising trade in Portuguese wines. These were further granted a most privileged position by the Methuen Treaty in 1703, being admitted in this country upon payment of £7 duty per tun, whilst the duty on French wines was fixed at £55 per tun.

Thus encouraged by the legislature, the Port wine trade grew with prodigious rapidity, and it is no less remarkable that, in spite of the competition of Germans, Dutchmen and of the Portuguese themselves, the lion's share of the Port trade has been kept to this day in the hands of English firms and Englishmen, some of whom trace back their pedigree to the original seventeenth century settlers.

The industry of a few West Country merchants, the protection of the home government, the comparatively low price of the wine, all helped to establish the popularity of

Port in England. But the main cause of this well-deserved popularity is to be sought in the wine itself, and in the fact that it is most eminently suited to the English climate and constitution.

Wine is, or should be, the naturally fermented juice of the grape. Port is a super-wine. The oil, vinegar, salt, pepper and mustard, which go to make the dressing, render the salad more palatable than if we ate it as produced by Nature; in the same way the art of man intervenes to make Port, and to improve upon Nature.

When the grapes are ripe, they are picked and brought to what is known as a *lagar*, i.e., a large, square, stone trough. This being filled, a number of bare-legged men enter it and dance and jump about to the tune of much music and song, until the whole lagar is a mass of discoloured husks in a purple sea of *must* or grape juice. This is left alone in the lagars for three or four days during which the microscopic agents known as *Mycoderma vini* or " ferments," which are to be found in thousands on all grape-skins, begin their

work. They attack the natural sugar which the sunshine has stored in the grapes, and which makes grape-juice so sweet, and they transform this sugar into alcohol and carbonic acid gas. The alcohol remains in what was grape-juice, but is now becoming wine, whilst the carbonic acid gas loses itself in the air. This is known as the process of fermentation ; it goes on at a very rapid pace at first, but it is checked by the alcohol present in the mass of the liquid, and accordingly becomes slower every day.

After a time, when fermentation has " eaten up " or transformed a certain proportion of the grape sugar into alcohol, all further fermentation is definitively checked by the addition of brandy, i.e., spirit distilled from wine. This raises the alcoholic degree of the mass so much that no further fermentation is possible, and the unfermented portion of the original grape sugar remains in its natural state. The newly-made wines are then carted from the *quintas* or farms on the hillside down to the river Douro, and sent by barges to Oporto, there to be stored in vast warehouses or lodges.

Once that stage is reached, the Port wine shippers have to decide whether the new wines shall be shipped as vintage wines or not. In the first instance, the wines are sent over here, as a rule two years after the vintage, and bottled soon after. Slowly does the wine thus bottled go on improving, the added brandy gradually losing some of its strength and " feeding " upon some of the original grape-sugar left in the wine, to combine with it and to form that captivating and generous wine we all know as fine vintage Port.

On the other hand, if the wines made at the vintage lack the bouquet, body, or " quality " indispensable if they are to last on their own merits for years to come, improving as time goes on, then they are kept at Oporto. Stored in large casks and frequently refilled with better-class wines kept in reserve for that purpose from good years, these wines gradually improve in quality and, after many years of intelligent care, the outcome will be what we know as tawny Port—a wine lighter in colour and in body owing to

the fact that it has been kept in casks to which the air has access, instead of in bottles which are almost airtight.

It also happens that a vintage Port, that is, a Port which is fit to be bottled early and to last on its own merits, will be kept in wood for a more or less extended number of years before it is bottled. The result will be a wine with less colour and strength than the early bottled vintage Port, but with more body and colour than tawny Port.

Mathematicians, stockbrokers, scientific burglars, and all whose mission or misfortune in life is to keep their better feelings strictly under control, to be accurate or to amass gold, will do well to confine themselves to tawny Port, but when the evening ground mists are rising in the meadows and the fire burns brightly in the hall, may there long be in England some true sportsmen to love and drink vintage Port.

II: SHERRY

OF all the brave knights who ever supported the claims of Henry VI to the throne of France, by the slaughter and the plunder of the greatest possible number of their liege's unwilling subjects, none was braver in the field, none wiser in council than stout Sir John Fastolf. He had been one of Henry V's most brilliant generals, conspicuous for his bravery at Agincourt and at the battle of Verneuil; he had also proved himself a wise administrator as Governor of Harfleur and Captain of Alençon, but he particularly endeared himself to the populace at home when, in 1429, he routed a large force with a mere detachment of archers at what is known in history as the Battle of Herrings. Shortly after, however, Talbot was defeated and taken prisoner at Patay owing to Fastolf's cowardice! "If Sir John Fastolf had not played the coward," wrote Talbot, "he being in the

vaward, placed behind with purpose to relieve and follow them, cowardly fled, not having struck one stroke." What really happened we may never know, but it is obvious that some ghastly mistake was made by somebody, with the result that Fastolf left Talbot and was branded a coward; he had fought bravely many a time before that fatal day and he lived on bravely for years after, fighting for his due and his good name in spite of fearful odds, but in vain. He shared with his friend, Suffolk, the hatred of the populace, being held partly responsible for the loss of Henry's vast possessions in France. Suffolk perished by the assassin's hand, and Fastolf, who lived on to an honourable old age in Norfolk, has been held to the ridicule of the whole of the civilised world for the last three hundred years as a bombastic coward of girth immeasurable and of thirst unfathomable. Shakespeare's Sir John Falstaff is but a distorted caricature of the real Sir John Fastolf, so say critics who lived in the seventeenth century and who were better placed to form a correct opinion than

some of our modern critics, who refuse to believe it. But whosoever Falstaff may be the portrait or the caricature of, Shakespeare is shamefully unfair to the fat knight when he charges him with " this intolerable deal of Sack" which the poor man never had the chance of tasting. Whether a hero or a coward, Falstaff never drank Sack, never even heard the name of this wine, either at Court, in camp, or at the tavern. Sack was not known during the reigns of Henry V and Henry VI, nor for many years after.

The soil and the climate of Spain are eminently suited to the culture of the vine, and wine has been made there from time immemorial. Spanish wines were imported into England in mediæval days, but only in small quantities, and they were chiefly sweet wines, made of overripe or dried grapes, or else sweetened with honey and flavoured with spices.

In 1517, the Duke of Medina Sidonia granted special privileges to English merchants who would come to Jerez, Port St. Mary and Seville to buy the wines of the

country. These wines were natural wines, not exceptionally dry, but very much drier than the sweet or sweetened wines which had hitherto been imported from Spain; they were accordingly sold in England as "seck" wines, from the Spanish *secco* (dry), and afterwards as Sack. The popularity of the wines of Jerez grew so rapidly in England that they soon suffered from that most flattering form of competition—imitation. In Madeira and the Canary Islands, as well as in other parts of Spain, wines of a similar type were shipped to England under the generic name of Sack. Thus it became necessary to distinguish those which came from Jerez; they first of all went by the name of Jerez Sack, then Jerez became "sherris" and "sherris-sack" was abbreviated into sherry.

Falstaff never drank Sack, neither Sherris-sack, nor Canary Sack, but Shakespeare loved it above all wines. Sack was the wine which the poet drank at the "Mermaid Tavern" in Cheapside—the rendezvous of all the dramatists and wits of the Elizabethan era; and Sack it was again that he drank at the

" Boar's Head " in Eastcheap, on his way to the playhouse on Bankside. They are on poor Falstaff's dry lips, but they come from Shakespeare's own heart, those immortal words which so lovingly describe Sherry: " A good sherris-sack hath a two-fold operation in it; it ascends me into the brain; dries me there all the foolish, and dull, and crudy vapours which environ it, makes it apprehensive, quick, inventive, full of nimble, fiery and delectable shape, which delivered o'er to the voice (the tongue) which is the birth, becomes excellent wit. The second property of your excellent sherris is the warming of the blood; which before cold and settled left the liver white and pale, which is the badge of pusillanimity and cowardice; but the sherris warms it, and makes it course from the inwards to the parts extreme. . . ."

Ben Jonson was partial to Canary Sack, but most of his contemporaries and all the poets and dramatists since, have given their preference to sherry as Shakespeare did, and have endorsed Gervase Markham's statement

that "your best Sacks are of Jerez in Spain."

So great was the popularity of sherry in England at the close of the sixteenth century, that Elizabeth's war with Spain was not suffered to interfere with the supply of Spanish vintages. The normal channels of commerce between the two countries were for a time paralysed, but the falling off in the legitimate imports of wine was compensated by numerous and important captures at sea and even in Spain. Thus, in 1587, Drake raided Cadiz and brought home from that port no less than 2,900 pipes of sherry.

During three consecutive centuries, the fame of sherry never suffered from the vagaries of fashion in England. During the greater part of the nineteenth century there was much more sherry imported into this country than any other wine; in 1874 there were over six million gallons of sherry imported into England, but in 1913 there was barely one million gallons. Many may be the causes to which such a sensational de-

crease is to be attributed, but there can be no doubt that the principal reason is to be sought in the universal retrenchment of the middle classes. Less than a century ago, when Ruskin's father, who was Peter Domecq's agent, drove from town to town selling sherry to have the means of educating his son, every mahogany sideboard in the land was graced by a decanter of sherry. Nobody ever drank very much sherry, but everybody drank a little sherry, and was the better for it. The decanter of sherry has now made room for a brew of tannin called tea; the one stimulated the appetite, whilst the other takes it away; the one stimulated the brain, whilst the other stunts it.

Of all wines, sherry is practically the only one which bears being left open without deteriorating. Port, claret, hock, and, far worse, champagne taste flat, and lose much of their charm if they are kept over from day to day once the cork has been drawn; not so sherry, which will retain its full fragrance and unimpaired excellence for some days

after it has been opened. This fact, which has long been recognised by the public, made sherry the ideal wine for the temperate yet hospitable people, and gained for it the place of honour on every Englishman's sideboard. The lasting properties of good sherry are partly due to the fact that more time is required to make sherry than any other wine.

At the vintage time, the grapes are picked with the utmost care, when perfectly ripe, and they are placed to dry upon straw mats for several hours ; they are then pressed, and the juice or " must " is left to ferment at its own will until the month of November which follows the vintage. It is at that time that expert tasters begin their all-important duties ; they have to taste carefully the contents of each cask and to classify each one according to the quality or style of wine it is found to contain. In one and the same cellar, the wines made from the same vineyards three months earlier, may all possess different characteristics by the end of November. This is due chiefly to the way each butt has been affected by a more or less rapid and thorough

fermentation, and the expert tasters have to decide what amount of wine spirit is to be added to each butt ; they must, furthermore, determine into which category and to which degree of excellence in each category the wine of each butt is to be placed.

The three principal classes of fine sherries are the " Fino," a wine pale in colour and with delicate fragrance ; the " Amontillado," a wine which requires to be kept longer to acquire its distinctive character, and which derives its name from the town of Montilla ; and the " Oloroso," a fuller and darker wine. In each of these three main classes of sherries there are many varieties and degrees of excellence. The aim of every shipper, however, is to maintain the style and quality of each type of wine he sells at various prices. This can only be done by the process of blending wines of different years, a system known as " solera," from the Spanish *suelo*, ground, taken in the sense of basis or formation. As the new wines slowly ferment in the bodegas, continually losing some of their bulk by evaporation, they are repeatedly

refilled with older wines, so that when the time comes for the wine to be shipped, sherry possesses still the fascinating freshness and sweetness of youth, but happily blended with the greater strength of mature years and the charm and softness of old age.

"Give me Sacke, old Sacke, boys!
To make the muses merry.
The life of mirth, and the joy of the earth,
Is a cup of good old Sherry."

—*Pasquil's Palinodia*, 1619.

III : CLARET

EVERY man who is not a freak of Nature is primarily vain and selfish; his vanity serves him as a shield which hides from his view the truly insignificant place he holds in the world, and his selfishness is his surest weapon to gain and keep some of the comforts of life. Most women lack a sense of humour, and so fail to be entertained as they should by man's vanity; it exasperates some and leaves others indifferent. On the other hand, there are few women who do not possess either natural instinct, tact, or intelligence sufficient to know how to make the best practical use of man's selfishness and vanity. Of all the brides who have promised at the altar to serve and obey their lord and master, how many have made the vain creature fondly imagine that he was ruling when he was being ruled, that he was obeyed when he was obeying? There are

exceptions, of course ; some humbly bend the knee before the idol and usually get roughly treated, whilst others rebel openly and make themselves exceedingly unpleasant and unpopular. Such was fair Eleanor d'Aquitaine, who lived many years ago—when knights were bold—a tigress whose cub was the lion-hearted Richard. The greatest heiress in Europe at the time, she married Louis VII of France, and embittered his life during fifteen long years until the month of March of the year of grace 1152, when she divorced him. Louis had not done singing *Te Deums*, thanking God for his happy release, when, in May, 1152, Eleanor married Henri Plantagenet, Duke of Normandy and Anjou, to whom she brought as her dowry the vast duchy of Aquitaine. The following year, Henri Plantagenet ascended the throne of England as Henry II, his and his wife's possessions in France being much larger than those of his suzerain, the King of France. Happily for Louis, Henry soon had trouble himself with Eleanor, who insisted on administering her duchy herself. After her

death, however, her two sons realised the immense wealth and importance of the south-western provinces of France which they had inherited from their mother. They knew also that it was indispensable for them to be assured of the loyalty of the citizens of Bordeaux, whose great city was the key to the whole of Gascony. To that end they and their successors granted certain extensive trading privileges in England to the merchants of Bordeaux, and attached them to the Crown of England by such solid bonds of interest that Bordeaux and Gascony remained loyal to the English sovereigns during three hundred years. It was during that long period that the trade in Bordeaux wines, or Claret, attained to such considerable importance as to enjoy practically a monopoly of the wine trade in England.

During three hundred years, the wines of Bordeaux were not only plentiful and easy to procure throughout England, but they were sold at prices which placed them within the reach of all but the poorest classes. During the twelfth century, the retail price of Gascon

wine—as Claret was then usually called—was from three farthings to twopence per gallon, and it was fixed at sixpence per gallon in 1448.

In 1451, however, Henry VI, who had inherited such vast possessions in France, had lost them all—all save Calais—and although the popularity of Claret survived the loss of Gascony, the vintages of Bordeaux became more and more costly and difficult to obtain in England. During the sixteenth century, the price of Claret in London rose to 2*s.* 8*d.* per gallon, and during the seventeenth century, wars which were as unnecessary as they were unprofitable, and taxes which were as arbitrary as they were impolitic, crippled all trade between France and England. Claret continued to be imported, but as its cost increased so did its consumption decrease, until it practically ceased altogether during the eighteenth century, as a result of the total prohibition or prohibitive taxation enforced by William III and the Georges.

During the first sixty years of the last century, the consumption of Claret in England was practically confined to the best and most

expensive types of wine. Claret was then mostly regarded as a fine after-dinner wine, and the demand for the cheaper descriptions of Bordeaux, the most wholesome of all beverage wines, was extremely limited. A complete change took place when, in the early sixties, Gladstone reduced the duty on Claret from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* per gallon, and, at the same time, threw open the wine trade to every grocer, draper, brewer, limited liability company promoter, and co-operative society's organiser who cared to pay a small fee to the Excise for a wine licence. During the twenty years which followed, the consumption of Claret increased very considerably, for Claret had once more become within the reach of the middle classes. Unfortunately, the phylloxera made its appearance soon after and practically destroyed the fairest vineyards of Bordeaux, so that little good wine was made during the eighties. Claret became both scarcer and dearer, as well as of poorer quality, with the inevitable result that the consumption fell off considerably. But the industrious " vigneron " never lost

heart nor faith in the " tree of life," and the replanted vineyards once more began to yield sound and fine wines. Time, the great healer of all ills, has made it possible now again to grow vines as good as the best which ever grew on that marvellous soil for the last twenty centuries, and the Bordeaux ruby is still the most beautiful gem in that vinous crown of which France is so justly proud.

The art of man never has produced anything more beautiful than Nature can show, and there is nothing more beautiful in Nature than harmony. The excellence of Claret, and the reason why it may rightly claim precedence over all other wines, is that it is the most harmonious and natural of all wines. As soon as the grapes are ripe, they are gathered with the greatest care, all unsound berries being immediately removed. Crushed in large oak presses, the grapes—juice, skins, pips and sometimes the stalks—are left to ferment at first in large wooden tubs ; after a few days the newly made wines are drawn from the fermenting vats into hogsheads, where the fermentation still goes on at a

much slower rate for some time. During the two or three following years, the new wines are occasionally racked, i.e., separated from their lees and drawn into fresh casks, until it is time to bottle them. Once bottled, Claret goes on improving for a more or less considerable length of time according to the quality of the wine and the year when it was made. As a general rule, it may be said that a red wine has not reached the age limit so long as it retains its " fruit," viz., the natural softness and sweetness of the grape. After a time, however, this disappears and the wine becomes hard and unpleasantly dry; it is then on the down grade and has been kept too long.

In the making of Claret, the art of man intervenes only to remove every possible cause of imperfection, but not to assist nor to hamper Nature. In order to obtain the best " must," all imperfect berries are carefully removed when the grapes are picked, and in order to avoid the wine acquiring from its lees too pungent a taste, it is " racked " from time to time, but nothing is added either to

the must or the wine to improve its colour, body, flavour, or alcoholic strength, all of which are due to the species of grapes used in making the wine, to the nature of the soil, the aspect of the vineyards where such grapes were grown, and the natural phenomenon of fermentation. Moreover, there is in Claret a more perfect harmony between its component parts than in any other wine. There is neither a lack nor an excess of grape-sugar, acidity, tannin, or alcohol, all of which so marvellously harmonise that Claret charms without ever palling on the palate and stimulates the brain without ever over-balancing it.

One of the great charms of Claret is that it adapts itself to all tastes, constitutions and purses. The varieties of Claret, the differences in excellence and in price, in type and style, are much greater than is the case with other wines. Broadly speaking, Claret is the wine which is made from the vines grown in the Gironde Département. This département, however, produces much good wine, but also some of indifferent quality. The

three districts where the best Clarets are made are known as the Graves, close to Bordeaux; the Médoc, a strip of land on the left bank of the river Gironde; and the St. Emilion district and the surrounding hills of the Dordogne valley. Even then, there are many degrees of excellence between the wines of these three most famous districts.

A Claret which is offered for sale solely under the name of either Médoc, Graves, or St. Emilion is but the nondescript product of a large wine-growing district where good quality is the rule, but a rule which has many exceptions. There are in the Médoc, for instance, many communes, or administrative divisions, of which the best known in England are those of Margaux, St. Julien, and St. Estèphe. A Claret sold under any such name is supposed to be a wine grown within the commune the name of which it bears; but, there again, many and wide are the differences which exist between the wines of the same commune, differences which are chiefly due to the soil and aspect of each vineyard. On the same hillock, for instance,

a vineyard may be planted facing north-west on a slope at the foot of which runs the Gironde ; the rich alluvial soil, the unfavourable aspect, and the immediate proximity of the river all combining to make it impossible for such a vineyard to produce really fine wine. And yet, at a very short distance, at the top or on the opposite slope of the same hillock, vines may be grown on eminently suitable stony or gravelly soil, with a south-eastern aspect, and produce the finest Claret it is possible to taste. Much sound, wholesome, and pleasant Claret may be sold merely under the name of a commune, such as St. Julien or Margaux ; but all Clarets which have a claim to a more or less high degree of excellence are too proud of their birthright not to go into the world under their own name—the name of the estate or château whence they came. Thus, whilst the names of Médoc and Margaux are but very vague appellations and no real guarantee of fine quality, a bottle of Château Margaux means a bottle of the finest Claret grown in the commune of Margaux, in the district of the

Médoc ; Château Rauzan-Ségla is the name of one of the second best ; Château Desmirail denotes one of the third best ; Château Marquis de Terme one of the fourth best wines of the Médoc district ; but all from the commune of Margaux. The same applies to all the vine-growing communes of the Médoc, of the Graves, and of the St. Emilion districts, so that its almost endless varieties and many grades of excellence make Claret the most interesting of all wines ; one always finds something new to learn about Claret, and this is not one of the least charms of this excellent wine.

The Gironde Département also produces much white wine of good quality. The best dry white wines of Bordeaux come from the Graves district, whilst some inimitable sweet white wines are produced in the Sauternes district, none being more justly celebrated throughout the world than the magnificent luscious wines of Château Yquem.

IV : BURGUNDY

RHETORIC is a lost art; we have no room for it in our eminently selfish and utilitarian civilisation. Rhetoric was the art of persuasion ; the orator was an artist who tought on the side of justice and patriotism. The soundness of the arguments he drew, the vividness of the images he painted, the music of his well-chosen words, made his hearers pause and consider ; before logic, imagination, and harmony, truth shone and right was vindicated. The greed of gain and the love of luxury are now too prevalent among all classes for the claims of justice to move us to act against our own interests. Demosthenes or Cicero might rise in the House of Commons and pour forth the most transcendent eloquence either for or against the Government of the hour without affecting the votes of the members ; logic, imagination,

and harmony have no place in party politics —the whip is the thing.

Born at Syracuse in the fifth century B.C., the art of rhetoric was perfected in Greece; it passed hence to Rome and was taught by the Romans in Gaul and Britain. In Western Europe, France may claim to have cultivated the art ot eloquence to the highest degree, and no province of France can boast of a greater number nor of more eminent orators than the old province of Burgundy. St. Bernard, Bossuet, Lacordaire, Lamartine, and many other illustrious men whose voice moved deeply their contemporaries, were born in Burgundy. And it is also on the Burgundy hills that those wines are made which combine strength, clearness, and charm, possessing in a superlative degree that persuasive power which is the hall-mark of eloquence.

The old province of Burgundy was done away with at the time of the French Revolution, but so were the *sous* and the *livres;* yet, at the present day, everybody in France still buys and sells by *sous* and *livres,* and men tell you with legitimate pride that they

are *Bourguignons* who would no more dream to say that they are natives of " Saône et Loire " than to ask how many *décimes* they owe. The old names die hard, and *Bourgogne* is too old a name and has survived too many vicissitudes ever to die.

The oldest Burgundians recorded in history were a purely German tribe, who defeated the Alemani, and who, migrating west, founded a kingdom, in the country lying between the Aar and the Rhône.

The fortune of war and marriage settlements resulted in the old kingdom of Burgundy being divided, reunited, and again subdivided on many occasions, until one Richard was created Duke of Burgundy by Charles the Bald of France. This first ducal house of Burgundy lasted from 841 until 1361, when the duchy was seized by King John, of France, who, in 1363, presented it to his son, Philip the Bold, as a reward for his bravery at the battle of Poitiers. " Thus commenced the famous line of dukes which played so great a part in the history of France during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and by the splendour of

its achievements, and the magnificence of its patronage, rivalled the greatest dynasties of the time." The most brilliant of the Dukes of Burgundy, Charles the Bold, was also the last ; at his death in 1477, his only daughter, Mary, married the Archduke Maximilian, and the duchy of Burgundy returned to the French Crown. It was eventually raised to the rank of a province, bounded on the north by Champagne, on the east by Franche Comté and Bresse, on the west by Bourbonnais and Nivernais, and on the south by Lyonnais and Dauphiné.

At the time of the French Revolution, when the limits of the old provinces were wiped out and the country was split up into smaller divisions known as " départements," the chain of hills upon which the finest Burgundian vineyards were situated formed the Department of *Côte d'Or*, the continuation of the same hills towards the south, where a greater quantity of wine is made but none of the same high excellence, formed the Département of *Saône et Loire*, whilst to the north-west of the Côte d'Or, the Département of Yonne

includes the famous white wine district of which Chablis is the centre.

The Côte d'Or Département is bounded north by the Département of Aube ; north-east by the Haute-Marne ; east by the Haute-Saône and the Jura ; south by the Saône et Loire ; and west by the Nièvre and the Yonne. Through the centre of this département runs a chain of hills which separate the basin of the Seine from that of the Saône, forming the connecting link between the Cévennes and the Vosges mountains. It is that chain of hills which gives to the Côte d'Or its name ; it is about thirty-six miles in length, and stretches from Dijon to Chalon-sur-Sâone in the direction of the north-north-east to south-south-west, the aspect of its vine-clad slopes being principally towards the east, south-east, or south. These hills have a height of from two hundred to three hundred feet ; their soil is chiefly calcareous, whilst the sub-soil is either marl or rock.

In the Côte d'Or, the vineyards usually begin on the upper third of the hills, never ascending quite to the brow, and they stretch

down the incline towards the plain, sometimes even extending for a mile or two in the plain itself. The best vineyards, however, are usually to be found on the middle or the lower part of the hillsides, which are nowhere very steep.

Dijon, the ancient and proud capital of the Burgundian dukes, used to be surrounded by some of the most famous vineyards of the whole countryside. This is no longer so, chiefly owing to these vineyards having been planted with commoner species of vines, yielding a greater quantity of grapes but of distinctly inferior quality. The finest Burgundy vineyards may be said to extend from Gevrey, some five miles south of Dijon, to Santenay, close to the limits of the *Département de Saône et Loire.* Gevrey is an old-world village, the name of which has faded before the fame of its most celebrated vineyard, Chambertin. Chambertin is not on the maps of the world, yet its name is known, and has been known for centuries, in all parts of the world wherever there have been men blest with an appreciative palate, and with

the means of obtaining the good things of the world.

From Gevrey to Beaune runs one of those straight and broad roads so dear to the heart of the motorist. To the left of that *Route Nationale* vines grow and prosper on the rich soil of the plain, but the wine they yield is only fit for local consumption, whilst, on the right of the same road, the most celebrated growths of Burgundy are situated.

Foremost among these are the Clos de Bèze, within the Commune of Gevrey, like Chambertin ; then, in the neighbouring Commune of Morey, the Clos de Tart. The Clos de Tart is not only one of the finest but also one of the most ancient vineyards of Burgundy. It was purchased in 1141 by a religious order, and Pope Lucius III confirmed them in the possession thereof in 1184 ; ever since, vines have been cultivated and excellent wine has been made there.

Next to the Commune of Morey is that of Chambolle, where the sub-soil is chiefly rock instead of clay and marl. The name of Chambolle, like that of Gevrey, has little

significance abroad, but the name of Chambolle's most famous vineyards *Musigny* is ever on the lips and in the heart of all who value fine wine. After Chambolle, we come to the Commune of Vougeot, where is situated the Clos de Vougeot, a growth which enjoys a more ancient and world-wide popularity than any other vineyard in the whole of Burgundy.

The famous Abbey of Citeaux was given some vine-land at Vougeot, in 1110, and from that date until 1336, the property of the monks was increased by purchases or gifts in such a manner that they ended by possessing one of the finest vineyards ever known, a square piece of the best vine-growing land with a superficies of over one hundred and twenty-five acres, planted with the finest species of vines, the whole surrounded by high walls which exist to this day. Unfortunately, the monks are no longer there and their vines have now passed into the hands of a relatively large number of growers. All of them make excellent wines from their little share of the Clos de Vougeot vines, but, good as such wines are to-day, they cannot all

possess that same high quality which was uniformly theirs so long as the famous Clos remained entirely the property of one owner.

Next to Vougeot is the Commune of Flagey, where some very fine wines are made from the Grands-Echezeaux vineyards, but these are hardly known in England, where they are handicapped by their difficult name. Still pursuing our way towards Beaune, we now come to Vosnes.

Of all the Communes of France the most modest is assuredly that of Vosnes. Who knows it? Quiet and unobtrusive like the ballet-master whom nobody thinks of or inquires after, Vosnes glories in the fame of her brilliant daughters whose names are famous all the world over, as great favourites as the greatest dancers of the day, but with that difference that they never grow old, never grow stale, and are more admired, more dearly loved, and more precious as they get older. Vosnes is unknown, but the vineyards of Vosnes are Richebourg, Romanée Conti (the only vineyard which takes precedence of the Clos de Vougeot), La Tache, Romanée

St. Vivant, and many more of lesser fame abroad but of equally remarkable excellence. After Vosnes, we enter upon the Commune of Nuits. Nuits itself is more than a village, and the fine mansions of its merchants give it quite the air of a town. Moreover, Nuits has not allowed the fame of even its most celebrated vineyard, viz., St. Georges, to usurp its place in the annals of the world. The wines of Nuits include the produce of a great many vineyards in the neighbourhood, some of which are extremely fine, whilst others are of more moderate quality. The same remark applies to the wines made from the vineyards of the neighbouring Commune of Prémeaux, which are usually shipped abroad under the better-known name of Nuits.

After Prémeaux, there is a short gap in the hills of the Côte d'Or, and we get no more good vineyards until the Commune of Aloxe is entered; it is there that the famous *Corton* vineyards are situated, and there also that what is known as the Côte de Beaune begins. A little to the west, there are the extensive vineyards of Savigny, but if we

keep to the *Route Nationale*, which we have followed from Gevrey, we soon arrive at the quaint little town of Beaune, where some fine remains of the ancient fortifications are still to be seen, and where the old *Hospice*, founded in the fifteenth century, still carries on its work of mercy, exactly in the same way as five hundred years ago. The nuns wear the same curious, high-shoulder garb ; the drugs are still kept in now priceless mediæval pottery ; and the ivory-white faces of the old folks, lying in fifteenth century four-posted beds, seem also to belong to days of long ago.

Remarkable as the Hospice de Beaune assuredly is in many respects, it is quite unique in the source of its yearly income. The old Hospice is not dependent upon State grants, municipal largesse, nor public generosity ; its chief income is derived from the sale of the wine made every year from the vineyards which, for centuries past, have been bequeathed to that benevolent institution from time to time.

The vintages of Beaune have been famous in Great Britain for a longer time than any

other Burgundy wines. In 1512, Louis XII of France sent a present of thirty-six puncheons of "Vin de Beaune cléret" to James IV of Scotland, and, in 1537, Lord Lisle imported ten casks of Beaune wine, which were shipped to him from Rouen to London.

Amongst the most celebrated growths of the "Côte de Beaune" are those of *Pommard* and *Volnay*, the wines of which justly enjoy a world-wide reputation.

Farther south, some very good white wine is made from the vineyards of the Commune of Meursault and, farther still, one comes to the famous Montrachet vineyards, which produce a white wine equal, if not superior, to the finest white wines of France. The Commune of Santenay is the last within the Département of Côte d'Or; it adjoins the Saône et Loire, where many fair vineyards are to be seen, and much good wine is made, but none which can compare in quality with the best growths of the Côte d'Or. The best red wines of Saône et Loire are those of Mâcon, and the best white wines those of Pouilly. Further south, in the Département of

Rhône, extensive vineyards are to be seen upon the hills of the Beaujolais, and they produce a sound red wine much lighter, but also very much cheaper, than the Côte d'Or wines.

In quite another direction, to the north-west of the Côte d'Or, the Département of Yonne —part of which used to be within the limits of the old province of Burgundy—produces a large quantity of both red and white wines. The first were formerly greatly appreciated in England, where they were known as " Wines of Auxerre." Thus Henry VIII had some Auxerre wine sent to London, via Rouen, in 1536 and 1537. On several occasions, in 1537, 1538, and 1540, Lord Lisle also imported some Auxerre wine, which was sent by barge from Auxerre on the river Yonne to Montereau, where the Yonne meets the Seine, and hence by the Seine to Rouen. The red wines of the Yonne Département have long ceased to be popular outside the district where they are made, but the fame of the white wines of Chablis is as great and as justly deserved as ever.

Burgundy is the most fragrant of all red

wines ; all the best growths have a distinctive and a striking *bouquet.* Burgundy is equally pleasing to the eye as to the olfactory sense ; it possesses a fine, clear, dark red colour, which no mixture of grape juice, spirit and sugar can ever approach. Burgundy fulfils on the palate the promises held out by its fine colour and charming *bouquet* ; it possesses a certain softness, warmth and delicacy harmoniously blended together in a manner that the art of man never can hope to imitate ; soft and velvety, Burgundy never is " sugary " ; warm and generous, it never is " spirity " ; delicate, it never is vapid. As the last sip is swallowed, Burgundy leaves on the palate a most pleasing " farewell," never a watery nor fiery taste. The popular belief that Burgundy is a heavy, inky wine is due, like many such beliefs, not to facts but to fiction. The black vinous brews sold under the name of " Burgundy " or the appellation of " Burgundy-type," by retailers often more ignorant than dishonest, are a gross libel upon the highly bred, delicate and delicious wines of Burgundy.

V: CHAMPAGNE

"Champagne with foaming whirls
As white as Cleopatra's melted pearls."
—*Byron* (*Don Juan, canto xv., st.* 65).

REPREHENSIBLE as extravagance may be in itself, it is not without grandeur, and it is often fascinating whilst meanness is always despicable. Cleopatra's melted pearls and the Niagara Falls are but examples of woman's and Nature's magnificent extravagance, without which the history of the world would lose its greatest charm and the face of the earth be robbed of much of its beauty.

To be extravagant is an art, as well as a pleasure, which is not everyone's gift, for the mere fact of wasting money to satisfy a vulgar craving for self-advertisement is not to be tolerated. Extravagance should never be self-centred, and it should always bear the hall-mark of refinement and beauty. He

who never is extravagant lives a dull, selfish life within ever-thickening walls, which are constantly raised around each of us by worldly cares and prejudices or sordid aims and cravings ; these are the barriers, stifling the higher aspirations of our mind, which extravagance must be allowed to break down from time to time. Extravagance cleanses the ship from the barnacles which cling to it in ever-increasing numbers ; it shuffles the cards of fate and gives us the chance of starting afresh with a better hand or the hope that it may soon be ours. Could the river's course be regulated by strongly built dams if it were not for the overflows, the waste weirs, without which the riverside fields would be inundated and the dams carried away ? In exactly the same way, economy without the safety valve of occasional extravagance will result in flood and desolation, drowning in us all generous instincts and noble feelings. Extravagance is the weir which saves the soul from this destructive flood, and its foaming whirls are sparkling Champagne.

Champagne has always been, still is, and

will ever be an extravagant wine, and the most charming and fascinating of wines.

When King Charles " enjoyed his own again "—in 1660—the melancholy austerity of the Roundheads fell into discredit, whilst the Royalists, who had always affected the gay and careless attitude of the man of pleasure, in opposition to the rigid severity of their antagonists, found in loyalty a new pretext for hard drinking and merry-making. It was at that auspicious time that Champagne, sparkling Champagne—light, elegant, exhilarating, and extravagant—was first introduced in England. The Merrie Monarch, his beautiful mistresses, his gallant courtiers, and all who could afford to procure the most fashionable of all wines, drank Champagne and were responsible for its immediate popularity in town. During the following two hundred years, Champagne was scarce and expensive throughout England, and it was only after the wine duties reduction in 1862 that the vintages of the Marne reached this country in large quantities, and that their moderate price, as well as the increasing wealth

of the nation, brought Champagne within the reach of the middle classes. In 1762, Champagne was sold at Vauxhall Gardens for 8*s.* a bottle, whilst a bottle of red port or sherry cost but 2*s.* In 1794, Champagne sold by auction in the City fetched 90*s.* per dozen, whilst port of the 1788 vintage only fetched 21*s.* per dozen. In 1802, the price of a bottle of Champagne at Vauxhall Gardens was 14*s.*; in 1818, Grillion charged 16*s.* and the Albion Hotel 17*s.* per bottle. In the 'sixties, however, the reduction of the wine duties, on the one hand, greater transport facilities and better vintages on the other, resulted in a sensational decrease in the price of Champagne, when the very best cost only 5*s.* a bottle at the Union Club, and 6*s.* at any of the Bodega bars. Since then, the price of Champagne has risen steadily but not abnormally, nor even excessively, if we bear in mind that all luxuries as well as every other commodity have likewise increased in price.

It is only natural that the best things of this world should also be the most expensive, since they are always in greater demand

than the others, whilst their supply is always limited. In almost every vine-growing country of Europe, America and Australia, they make fairly cheap and quite drinkable sparkling wines, which are supposed to resemble Champagne, but there are a few people in the world who can afford to have the best, and there are a great many more who cannot afford it but who will have it all the same, so that the demand for Champagne is equal to or greater than the supply, with the result that the price of Champagne is high. The wealth of the world has increased, and the love of good things, ease, and comfort has increased still more, but the supply of Champagne has not. The trouble is that Champagne can only be made to perfection from a certain species of grapes grown within a restricted area upon a very peculiar calcareous soil, only to be found in a certain part of the valley of the Marne. The characteristics of the wine obtained from the Champagne vineyards are due to the poor soil on which suitable vines are grown, to the climatic conditions obtaining in the district, and to

the mode of cultivation of the vineyards; man as well as Nature striving to produce quality at the expense of quantity.

The great majority of the grapes grown in the Champagne district are black. When they have been picked, they are put in the press and the mass of over eight thousand pounds of blue-black grapes, which go to make one pressing, would certainly lead one to believe that red wine is going to be made and not white. But when the heavy oak lid of the press is slowly lowered and crushes the grapes, the sweet juice which these yield as they burst, immediately runs down into a separate vat placed for that purpose below the press, whilst the skins, pips, and stalks are left high and dry. The juice of the grapes being of a greenish-white colour, would only become red if left in contact with the skins which contain all the colouring matter; so that it is possible to cheat Nature and to make white wine out of black grapes.

The juice of the grapes, or "must," contains a great deal of sugar, which the natural process of fermentation transforms into alcohol

and carbonic acid gas ; the alcohol stays in the wine, whilst the carbonic acid gas loses itself in the air. To keep part of this carbonic acid gas in the wine is the chief feature of the art of making sparkling wine. In the spring which follows the vintage, the newly-made wines are bottled, tightly and securely corked, and laid to rest. Bottled thus early, Champagne still contains a certain proportion of its original grape sugar, which will be transformed in due course by fermentation into alcohol and carbonic acid gas, and as the latter is no longer free to escape, it remains in the wine which it renders sparkling. After it has been bottled a certain time, the wine ceases to ferment ; it then contains its maximum quantity of alcohol and the proportion of carbonic acid gas corresponding to the amount of sugar which was in it at the bottling time. Unfortunately, it also contains a good deal of sediment as a result of fermentation and of ageing. If it were not for this sediment, the wine would be ready for consumption, but it cannot be allowed to leave the cellar until it is absolutely " star

bright," and this means more work and no little ingenuity.

Each bottle is placed on specially made perforated tables, neck downwards, and is shaken gently every day for weeks in such a way that the sediment which has been deposited on the glass in the bottle is gradually made to fall upon the cork and to settle there. When this has been achieved, the cork and all the sediment which has been collected upon it are removed with as little loss of wine as possible. Another cork is immediately driven in to replace the first one, and the wine is then ready for consumption, both sparkling and bright—a fully and naturally fermented wine.

After the wine has been freed from the sediment it contained, and before it is corked a second time, some sweet syrup of sugar candy is sometimes added to sweeten it, but this is only done to suit the taste of those consumers who like a sweet wine ; it does not affect in any way whatsoever the sparkling quality of Champagne.

If one bears in mind the limits outside

which no wine may be made which is legally entitled to the name of Champagne, and if one realises that it takes a considerable time, untold care, many experts and skilled workmen to transform crude grape-juice into a wine which contains not a particle of sediment and neither a lack nor an excess of carbonic acid gas, it becomes quite easy to understand why Champagne has always been and still is a most expensive wine. To ignore or to overlook this truth is to court disaster ; the homely sardine is infinitely preferable to stale caviare, and an honest draught of bitter beer is greatly to be preferred to bad Champagne. Champagne, like criticism, is most wholesome when it is sound, but, also like criticism, it is both despicable and dangerous when bad.

Champagne never was common nor cheap, but it is bound to be even less common and much more expensive for some years to come. During full four years the vineyards of Champagne have been under German fire and German poison gas. The lack of proper care has ruined beyond all hope many acres

of the fairest Champagne vines. Labour was already scarce in Champagne before the war when the vineyards were flourishing, and when Reims was a fair and busy city. Where and how will the necessary labour be found to replant the desolated vineyards, and to rebuild the martyr city? It must be done and it shall be done, but time is wanted and time is money! So your Champagne will cost you more.

Champagne is dearer to buy than before the war—worse luck—but it should be dearer to our heart, too, for it has won the war, not once only, but twice.

In 1914, when the all-conquering Huns were sweeping everything before them, they overran Reims and Epernay and there they stopped. Their savage hordes dived down into the deep Champagne cellars and there drank themselves drunk.

In 1918, the panting but still savage beast had once more crossed the Marne; it encircled Reims almost completely and was but a mile from Epernay. Had Reims fallen, General Gouraud's army, further north, and

Verdun, further east, were lost and the whole front broken; but the hinge never gave; Reims did not fall and it gave General Mangin his chance of launching on the 15th of July, the counter-offensive which was the beginning of the end. Why did Reims hold out? Had the order been given to defend what was left of the battered city at all costs? On the contrary! There were two French divisions in Reims, or strictly speaking under Reims. The Army Commander sent them a written order to evacuate Reims and fall back towards Epernay. That order seemed most reasonable then: the supply of food and munitions was most difficult and might become altogether impossible at any moment: no Army Commander likes the prospect of two whole divisions being surrounded and taken prisoners. That order may be made public some day, when the official history of the war comes to be written, but will the reason be stated at the same time why it never was carried out? Probably not. There was but one reason and a very good one: the men refused to obey. They swore

that so long as the stocks of Champagne lasted Reims would hold out against all odds, and it did. These men drank deep and made large gaps in merchants' stocks, but they fought better still and made larger gaps in German ranks; they drank like heroes, not like swine, and they did not drink all. But wonder not and grumble not if your Champagne costs you more.

VI : MADEIRA

CLAS MERDIN, or "the sea-guarded green place," was England's ancient British name, a name denoting alike her fertility and natural protection. The green fields and oak forests of Old England tempted many unwelcome guests—Romans, Norsemen, Danes, and Normans—to cross over to this fair island, which had for centuries no other protection but the sea. Both conquerors and conquered realised at an early date that a strong navy was indispensable to ensure safety at home and success abroad. A drawbridge without stout chains to raise it when the enemy approaches is a foe instead of a friend to the defenders of the castle; in the same way a sea-girt island without a navy is hopelessly at the mercy of the invader. Unable to build and man a strong royal navy, the Plantagenets and their immediate successors always gave the mercantile

marine every encouragement in their power. Merchant vessels in those days were more than training schools for sailors of the king's navy; they were usually armed and always ready to fight for their flag. Up to the thirteenth century, the ships of England seldom ventured through the Straits of Gibraltar to dispute with the Genoese and Venetians any share of the Levant trade. The attention of merchants in England was drawn to the Mediterranean chiefly by the tales of those who returned from Richard's crusade. Hitherto, the bulk of the English wool exported abroad was shipped to Flanders, where the Venetian galleys called for it, bringing in exchange spices, sweet wines, and Indian silks. The most highly prized and universally popular sweet wine at the time, both in England and on the Continent, was the produce of the island of Candia; it was generally known as *Malvoisie* or *Malmsey*.

During the fourteenth century, the sale of Malmsey in London alone became so important that it was the object of royal ordinances and municipal regulations on many occasions.

In 1365, the Mayor and Chamberlain of the City decided to keep the sale of sweet wines in their own hands, and to devote all profits derived therefrom to the repair and cleansing of the City walls and ditches. Such a step was a bold one for a Lord Mayor to take, and His Worship very soon realised that it was very difficult for the Corporation to retail Malmsey profitably in City taverns. Three months after their first attempt, the Mayor, Aldermen, and Commonalty of the City leased to one Richard Lyons, vintner, for a term of ten years, and at an annual rental of two hundred pounds, the three City taverns which were to enjoy the monopoly of serving sweet wines to the public; they further protected the citizens from any abuse by Lyons of his monopoly, and decreed that he was not to retail *Malvesyn, Candy,* or any other such sweet wines at a higher price than sixteenpence a gallon.

Edward III was the first monarch to assert the right of the kings of England to the sovereignty of the sea, and he took the keenest interest in all naval affairs; he is the only

English sovereign who gained, in his own person, two signal naval victories, fighting on one occasion until his ship actually sank. He placed many difficulties in the way of Venetians who wished to sell their Malmseys in England, and his ambition was to see his own merchantment go to the Mediterranean with English wool, returning with the wines of Candia and other commodities from the Levant.

Candia, latterly known as Crete, was from 1204 until 1645 under the domination of Venice. It grew such an abundance of wine that, during the fifteenth century, the Venetians derived, according to Bacci, no less than a hundred thousand ducats (about £22,500) per annum from the export taxes levied on the wines of the island. These wines were known as *Malvasia Candiæ* or Candia Malmsey, *Creticum vinum* or wine of Crete, and also as *Rotimo*, from the name of a certain district of the island. The more usual name in England was *Malmsey*, which became the distinctive appellation of a style of sweet wines. Although these were produced to

greater excellence in Candia, where the climate and the nature of the soil were admirably suited to the culture of the vine, similar wines, which were also sold as Malmsey, were made in the island of Cyprus and in most of the islands of the Ægean Sea.

At the beginning of the fifteenth century, the Venetian trade with England was in a flourishing condition, but the English mercantile marine was in a very bad state. The great galleys of Venice came regularly to English ports with their Malmseys, but English merchants did not go to Candia. The inevitable consequence of this state of affairs was that the Venetians, having no competition to fear, gradually raised the price of their wines, reduced the size of their casks, and demanded ready money, refusing to take English woollens in exchange for their wines, " to the greate enryching of theym self and greate deceit, losse, hurt, and damage " of the good people of England.

The surest remedy to this and many other evils was a strong navy and an active mercantile marine. Both had, unfortunately, been

sacrificed during the greater part of the fifteenth century, whilst the Wars of the Roses desolated the land. One of Henry VII's first acts on ascending the throne was to give to the merchant service great encouragement, with the result that larger ships were built, mariners repaired to the Mediterranean in greater numbers, sold English woollens in Italy at higher prices than they fetched in Flanders, and brought back to England and to Flanders large quantities of Malmsey, which they carried as return cargo, charging but four ducats freight per butt instead of seven which the Venetians were wont to charge. This change and the rapid growth of the English mercantile marine were viewed by the Venetian Senate with alarm and jealousy. The Portuguese, by discovering a waterway to India via the Cape, had already robbed Venice of the monopoly of the eastern trade which her merchants had long enjoyed, and the Senate was all the more anxious to secure for the Venetian galleys the freight of all the wines shipped from Candia to England and Flanders. To this end they imposed, in

1489, an export duty of four ducats per butt of Malmsey shipped from Candia in other than Venetian vessels. This new impost levied on English shipping was greatly resented in England, and, by way of retaliation, Henry VII attempted to transfer the wool staple from Venice to Pisa. The king decreed that English merchants should not go to Venice, but sell their wool at Pisa, where the Venetians were to come and fetch it if they chose, bringing to Pisa their Malmseys for sale to the Englishmen. Greatly incensed by such a decree, the Senate of Venice issued strict orders that no Malmsey whatsoever should ever be shipped from Candia to Pisa, and negotiations soon followed between the Republic and the English Court, which lasted for many years. In 1491, the Commons placed an extra duty of 18*s*. per butt upon all Malmseys brought to England by foreigners, but the King promised to take off the new duty as soon as the Venetians should discontinue their export tax of four ducats, or about 18*s*., per butt on Malmseys shipped in English bottoms.

This struggle between Venice and England for the preponderance of their respective merchant fleets lasted till 1499, when Venice yielded and repealed the tax of 18*s*. per butt levied in Candia upon English shipping. The Republic demanded at the same time that the similar tax be repealed which had been laid upon Venetians bringing Malmsey to England. Henry VII had personally promised to do so, and the Commons had made it expressly known, when the new tax was imposed, that it should be removed as soon as the Venetians removed theirs. But no pledges nor promises could overcome the instinctive dislike of English statesmen to take off a "temporary" impost. Venice was at that time faced with grave difficulties in the Adriatic and unable to retaliate; the Senate sent many letters and several ambassadors to Henry VII, Wolsey, and Henry VIII, but all they obtained was a reduction, never a remission, of this tax.

In the seventeenth century, Candia fell into the hands of the Turks, and Candia wines became more difficult to obtain, and, even-

tually, they ceased to be shipped altogether. In England, although the consumption of Malmsey fell off considerably, this wine never ceased altogether to be imported. Malmsey had been too long appreciated throughout the land for its popularity not to outlive its actual supply. In order to meet the demand, merchants imported and sold as Malmsey similar wines to those of Candia which they procured in Greece and Italy, or at Cyprus, Teneriffe and other islands. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, by far the best Malmsey in England was that from the island of Madeira.

The Infante Dom Henrique is credited with having imported the Malmsey grape from Candia to Madeira as far back as the fifteenth century. It is a medium-sized grape, known in the island as " Malvazia Candida," of a rich golden colour when ripe, and yielding a luscious white wine with a peculiar bouquet.

The wines of Madeira, like those of the Douro and of Marsala, owe much of their excellence and of their reputation abroad to English enterprise. The wines of Madeira

were of poor quality and of no repute in 1745, when a young Englishman, one Francis Newton, set himself the task of improving viticulture and existing wine-making methods. The loose volcanic soil of the hills and the admirable climate of the island were, and still are, so perfectly suited to the culture of the vine that, in spite of the ignorance and indolence of the natives, excellent wines were made by Mr. Newton and his friends, Gordon, Cossart, Murdoch, Johnston, and Spence. They began by exporting their wines to the West Indies and North America. High tariffs or irksome regulations made it difficult for either France or Spain to send their wines to the English colonies, but the wines of Madeira were not considered to be a European commodity, and they were allowed to be imported direct. Newton took advantage of this fact, as was to be expected, and it is even probable that this was the principal reason which led him to choose Madeira as the scene of his commercial activities. During the American War, English officers were scarcely able to obtain any other wine than Madeira; they

learnt to appreciate it, and on their return home they and their friends materially helped to make Madeira popular in England, where it had been little known until then. The taste for Madeira at home and in the colonies became so general at the close of the eighteenth century that the supply barely kept pace with the demand. In India, the consumption of Madeira used to be considerable, and much of this wine was also sent to Bombay and back to London in order to mature it more rapidly.

Madeira is a generous wine which matures slowly but keeps better and longer than most wines. Soon after it is made it is kept for some months in heated chambers, where, owing to the evaporation of a large proportion of its aqueous parts, it acquires greater alcoholic strength.

Good, old Madeira Malmsey is one of the finest dessert wines, and not the least of its many charms is that it is so seldom met with.

VII : MARSALA

SINCE that fatal day in 289 B.C., when Rome was first captured and sacked by the Gauls, until the year of grace 1913, when the chief magistrate of the eternal city was a Socialist Jew named Nathan, disasters and humiliations have many a time overtaken, and been heaped upon, the most marvellous city in the world ; but Rome still lifts her head proudly above all the cities of the world. London may be the largest capital in the universe, and Paris the most brilliant, but both London and Paris owe to Rome a debt of gratitude that no homage can ever adequately repay. Who made those marvellous roads which brought the traffic of the country to the capital, and enabled him who held the capital to make his sway felt around ? Who, but the Romans ? Both England and France pride themselves on their civilisation and their civilising power

in every part of the world; but what would their civilisation be had they not been civilised themselves by Rome? And would their great colonial empires ever have existed had they not been taught by Rome how to rule? And if we look across the Atlantic, and consider the laws of those vast countries throbbing with young life and energy, from Canada to the Argentine Republic, we shall see that their laws like our own in Europe are permeated with the spirit, and sometimes contain even the letter, of the old Roman Civil Law.

Cedant arma togae; the Roman lawyers and administrators were even greater men than the Roman captains; what the soldier conquered the lawyer kept and administered. Think of the numerical strength of the Roman legions, and of the empire they had to police, and you realise that the Roman empire would never have been so vast nor lasted so long had it not been administered by strong and wise laws. The Roman law was eminently constructive. The Roman law was strictly, even cruelly, just, and herein

lay its greatest strength. A woman who attempted to set fire to a theatre containing upwards of seven hundred men, women and children would have been put out of harm's way by the Romans, whether she claimed to be a political agent or a lunatic. Votes for women would have grievously shocked the common sense and logic of the Romans. They never could have understood our sentimentalism or our forbearance. Mr. Leif Jones would have amazed them, and they would have looked upon as grossly immoral such wills as that of a Mrs. Sarah Egglestone, of Upper Norwood, who died a few years ago, leaving eight hundred pounds' worth of Consols to provide for her dog Paddy, on whose demise the sum is to revert to the R.S.P.C.A. The Roman law was a man-made law, and it treated women kindly but firmly, withholding from them rights which they were likely to misuse, and privileges which were beyond their appreciation. It was thus that the Roman law forbade women to drink wine; and Roman custom was for centuries opposed to women having their

meal at the same board as men. Cicero even censures somewhat severely what he calls the indecent custom of men introducing their wives to convivial reunions. " Quis enim Romanorum pudet uxorem inducere in convivium? Aut cujus materfamilias non primum tenet locum, atque in celebritate versatur? "

The Romans drank their wine, as they did most things, methodically and thoroughly. Their chief meal was supper, and their chief recreation was conversation. With their food they drank wine diluted with water, but once the eating tables had been removed a dessert was brought in, and different wines were served which helped rhetoric to flow and wit to sparkle.

Many and excellent were then the wines of Italy, but none more highly prized by the Romans, nor more widely celebrated in all parts of the empire than the *Falernian,* which Martial calls " immortal " :

" Addere quid cessas, puer, immortale Falernum? "

The fame of the Falernian vintages has long since passed away, but not so the reputation

of the wines of Italy. Italy is, after France, the largest wine-producing country in the world, and it may be likened to one vast vineyard from Lombardy and Tuscany in the north down to Sicily in the south. In England the earliest known Italian wine was the *Vernage*, or wine of Vernaccia, which is mentioned by Chaucer in the " Merchant's Tale " :

> " He drinketh ipocras, claree and Vernage
> Of spyces hot, t'encressen his corage."

Vernage was reputed one of Italy's finest wines a hundred years before Chaucer's time, when Pope Martin IV used to stew his Bolsena eels in Vernaccia wine—a refinement of luxury for which Dante makes him suffer in Purgatory :

> ". . . e purga per digiuno
> L'anguille di Bolsena in la Vernaccia."

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the wines of Tuscany enjoyed a great popularity in England where they were sold mostly under the name of Florence wines. They appear to have been imported in flasks, not in casks, and to have always been ex-

pensive. On January 8th, 1661, Pepys noted in his Diary that he had, on that day, drunk some Florence wine at Lady Sandwich's house, and that her ladyship had given him two bottles of the same wine for his wife. There are records of Florence wines being sent to England from Italy in 1661, 1668, 1669 and 1670, but always in very small quantities. Towards the end of the seventeenth century, the imports of Florence wine increased greatly. From October 29th, 1682, to February 1st, 1683, there were only thirty-three chests of Florence wine imported into London, but seventy-three chests during the month of February, 1683. From October 30th, 1698, to August 23rd, 1699, the imports of Florence wine in London rose to two thousand tuns.

Many London taverns then sold Florence wine in place of French wines, the importation of which had been prohibited by William of Orange. Thus Richard Ames in his " Search after Claret " (1691) :

> " At the Shepherd when boldly for claret we askt
> He told us he'd very good Florence was flaskt."

* * * * * *

" He assured us of claret he had not a gill,
But of delicate Florence we might have our fill."

Writing to James Vernon, on August 27th, 1698, Matthew Prior praises " Lacrima Christi and White Florence."

The wines of Tuscany were imported in greater plenty into England by the Genoese to supply the place of the Malmseys, after the conquest of Candia by the Turks. Tuscan vintages ,however, never became very popular in this country, not only on account of their fairly high price, but also, and chiefly, because they did not last well.

In his " Journal to Stella," Swift wrote, on January 9th, 1711 : " To-day Ford and I set apart to go into the city to buy books but we had only a scurvy dinner at an alehouse, and he made me go to the tavern and drink Florence four and sixpence a flask ; damned wine ! " A little later the same author mentions having received from St. John a chest of Florence wine, which the Grand Duke was in the practice of sending over to the chief ministers, and which, he says, " he liked mightily " ; but, within a fortnight from the

time he got it, he wrote in his " Journal," April 5th, 1711 : " Do you know that I fear my whole chest of Florence is turned sour, at least the two first flasks were so, and hardly drinkable. How plaguey unfortunate am I ! and the Secretary's own is the best I ever tasted ! "

Italy now exports a great variety of wines, light beverage red wines, such as Chianti or Barolo, white wine from the island of Capri, sparkling wine from Asti, and others, but none which can compare as regards quality, and suitability to the English climate, with the wines of Marsala.

Some one hundred miles to the south-west of Palermo, the ancient city of Lilybæum used to be the chief fortress of the Carthaginians in Sicily and the finest port in that island in Roman times. It was completely ruined, however, not by an invading host, but by its own lord and master, the Emperor Charles V, who, finding himself unable to defend it, had the city destroyed, in 1532, for fear it might fall into the hands of the Turks. The Turks did come all the same, and they

named the desolate port Marsa-Allah, or "God's Harbour," a name which the Sicilian city bears to this day.

The wines of Marsala possess a beautiful amber colour and they are both generous and delicate. They owe their peculiarly attractive bouquet to the loose volcanic soil upon which they are grown, but they owe their brilliant colour, high alcoholic strength, and generous body to the care and intelligence with which they are made.

Necessity may be a stern master, but it certainly is the best master. The vine-growers of Champagne and of the Moselle valley would make little wine if they did not prune their vines hard, manuring them properly, and tending them assiduously all the year round, in order to obtain sound ripe grapes. There is no doubt that if the care, labour, and money spent every year in France and Germany upon the proper cultivation of the vine were spent equally on Italian vineyards, the wines of Italy would be better than they are to-day; But the richer soil and sunnier climate of Italy are such

that grapes grow and mature without requiring much attention, and the grower who gathers his vintage with so little difficulty is prone to take no more trouble in the actual making of the wine. The only exception to this rule is at Marsala, where the wine industry is largely in the hands of two important English firms. The man who first taught the Sicilians how to make their wine fit for shipment abroad, and suitable to the taste of Northerners, was a native of Liverpool, one John Woodhouse, who settled at Marsala in the eighteenth century. His firm, which is still extant, supplied " His Majesty's Ships off Malta," under the command of Nelson, with no less than five hundred pipes of wine, in 1800. A few years later, in 1805, a Yorkshireman, Benjamin Ingham, started business in Palermo, and gave himself heart and soul to the wine industry. His patient research and study enabled him to improve very considerably both viticulture and the art of wine making in Sicily. The firm he founded at Marsala, in 1812, still exists, and for the last hundred years these two English

firms have succeeded in making wholesome and generous Marsala wine one of the most justly popular of all wines in the world.

VIII : CAPE WINES

IN no other part of the British Empire has the vine been cultivated on such a large scale and for so long a time as at the Cape. Johan van Riebeek, the pioneer of Dutch civilisation in South Africa, imported vines in 1653, and cultivated them successfully in Table Bay Valley. The vine appears to have taken kindly to the South African soil from the first, and in 1658 van Riebeek's success induced the then Commander of the Colony to lay out the first Government vineyard at the Cape. It consisted of 1,200 vines and it was situated at what was known at the time as Wijnberg, where is to-day the residence of the Anglican Bishop in South Africa. Viticulture spread with such rapidity and the vines proved so prolific that ten years later there was already a glut of wine at the Cape. In 1670, the Dutch East India Company sought to encourage

the growers of South Africa to export their wines to Batavia, but the attempts made then and renewed on several other occasions proved quite unsuccessful; the wines apparently suffered so much during the sea voyage from the Cape to Java that they failed to give satisfaction to the Dutch settlers on that island. Distillation was then resorted to as a means of disposing of the surplus production of wine at the Cape, but the methods employed must have been very primitive and the spirit obtained failed to prove acceptable even in the Colony. Very praiseworthy efforts were then made to improve the quality of the wines. Vine cuttings were imported from France, the Rhinegau and Spain, and in 1686, the Governor, van der Stel, issued a proclamation making it a punishable offence to gather one's grapes before he and a special committee of experts had fixed the day upon which the vintage was to begin. Two years later, in 1688, many Huguenots arrived and settled at or near the Cape, most of whom had a thorough and practical knowledge of viticulture and wine-

making. Vineyards continued to be planted, and in 1710 the number of vines at the Cape had increased so much as to reach nearly three million, whilst in the Stellenbosch and Drakenstein districts, such marvellous progress was made that the production of wine rose from 1,639 leggers in 1735, to 12,000 leggers in 1800 (one legger equals about 128 imperial gallons). Needless to say, the production of wine increased far more rapidly than the white population of the Colony, so that the Administration sought repeatedly to create an export trade which might prove a source of wealth to growers as well as to the Cape Exchequer. Constantia wine was exported to Europe as early as 1722, and it was very favourably received in Holland, where it fetched from £10 to £16 per legger. Unfortunately, the quantity of wine made at Constantia was very limited, and no other wine proved acceptable. The produce of the many other South African vineyards appears to have been very abundant, but quite unfit to bear a long sea voyage. In June, 1719, six small casks of Cape wine were sent to

Amsterdam and Batavia, then a few large casks were shipped to Amsterdam and Middelburg, and, finally, a thousand bottles were shipped, but, in each instance, when the wine reached its destination it was found to be unfit for consumption. Yet in spite of their failure to establish a profitable export market for their wines, the farmers found viticulture sufficiently profitable not only to maintain but even to increase the number and extent of their vineyards so long as the country remained under Dutch domination. On the one hand, labour was then almost entirely slave labour, and consequently very cheap; on the other hand, the population of the Colony was steadily increasing and all the vessels of the Dutch East India Company, both outward and homeward bound, called at the Cape, where much wine was purchased for their use.

In 1800, under British rule, an Agricultural Department was created, and the improvement of Cape wines was confidently entrusted to it. The new Administration had been so struck by the flourishing state of the Colony's

extensive vineyards that it entertained great hopes of deriving an important revenue from the export of South African wines. To encourage the growers, as well as to gain their goodwill and loyalty, Parliament lowered the duty charged on both wine and brandy shipped from the Cape to Great Britain. In 1811, the number of vines growing in the Colony was 18,607,278, producing 11,010 leggers of wine and 1,014 leggers of brandy. In that year, the Administration issued a circular to all the wine growers of the Colony, calling their attention to the importance of improving as much as lay in their power the quality of their wines so as to make them acceptable in England; at the same time, an official taster was appointed, whose office it was to see that all wines intended for export were of sufficient good quality to stand the voyage and to do credit to the Colony. No wine could be shipped abroad without the " taster's " permit, and, judging from results, this official must have acquitted himself of his delicate task in a very conscientious manner; his office only lasted

fourteen years (1811–25), during which the exports of wines from the Cape rose steadily to 67,985 leggers. This rapid increase in the demand from abroad for the wines of the Colony resulted in European wines being actually sent to the Cape, and there mixed with the local wines to be reshipped as Cape wines. The greatly increased demand for Cape wines in England was to a large extent due to the reduction, in July, 1813, of the duty on these wines from £43 to £14 7s. More vineyards were planted, until the Colony could boast of 30,000,000 vines. The export trade, however, began to decrease after 1825, but, nevertheless, it remained quite important until 1835, when the duty on French wine was reduced to 6s. per gallon, and that on Portuguese wine to 4s. per gallon, whilst the duty on Cape wines remained fixed at 2s. per gallon. Later on, the duty on Cape wines was raised to 2s. 9d. per gallon, but the greatest blow of all was when the duties were levied no longer according to the country they came from but according to their

alcoholic strength, whatever their origin might be.

In 1825, the value of wines exported from the Cape was greater than that of any other commodity exported from the Colony. Soon after, however, wool and hides took the first place; in 1865, wine was fifth on the list of exports, and it sank to the eighth place in 1868.

The loss of the English market was naturally severely felt in South Africa, but the growers did not lose heart. Far from abandoning their vineyards they planted more, and they successfully checked the inroads of the oidium when this dreaded disease made its appearance early in the 'sixties. In 1875, there were 68,910,215 vines growing in the Colony, covering an area of 8,588 morgen, 65 roods, and producing 4,485,665 gallons of wine and 1,067,832 of spirits, figures which are all the more remarkable when compared with those relating to the total exports of wine and spirits from the Cape; these amounted to only £197,748 from 1873 to 1879. What really happened was that the decline in the

demand for Cape wines in England took place during a period of unprecedented prosperity in the Colony. Diamonds were discovered in 1869, the Diamond Fields were annexed in 1871, Kimberley and De Beers were also "discovered" in 1871, and full responsible government was conceded in 1872; furthermore, ever since the incorporation of Basutoland in 1869, other territories were constantly annexed or incorporated, east, west, and north, and as the Colony grew so also grew its population, till the consumption of wine within the Colony was such as to absorb practically the whole of the local supply. Ever since, with the exception of a period of acute depression which followed the war of 1900–1902, the local demand for the wines and brandy of the Cape has increased at the same ratio as the production thereof, with the result that the growers have paid little attention to the making of wines suitable for export, and merchants have not been tempted to make any great pecuniary sacrifices to reintroduce Cape wine to the notice of the British public. The most dreaded scourge

of the vine, the phylloxera, was first discovered in South Africa at Howbray, near Cape Town, on January 2nd, 1886, and in four years it had spread to Stellenbosch, Somerset West, Paarl, and the surrounding districts. The Administration spent nearly £50,000 and destroyed two million vines from 1886 to 1890 in the hope of checking the progress of the pest, but without success. It was then decided to import and propagate hardy American stocks to replant the desolated vineyards. From 1891 to 1894, 623,891 plants were imported from France, at a cost of £1,476 16s. 5d., and were distributed amongst the farmers by the Government; the most suitable varieties were propagated locally, and in thirteen years 19,237,259 grafted vines were replanted in the Colony.

In 1891, there were 73,574,124 vines in the Colony, producing 6,012,522 gallons of wine, 1,423,043 gallons of spirits, and over two million pounds of raisins. For a few years after, the replanting of the vineyards did not keep pace with the destructive industry of

the phylloxera. Thus, in 1899, the colony produced only 4,826,432 gallons of wine and 1,167,344 gallons of spirits; but since then the replanted vineyards have withstood so much better the attacks of the pest, that the production of wine and spirits is now equal to that of 1891 and is likely to increase rapidly in the near future.

The fruitful vine is cultivated in many parts of Cape Colony, and vineyards are also to be found in the Transvaal, but the most important vineyards are all situated in the south-western districts of the Cape; in other districts, such as Graaf-Reinet, and in the Eastern Province, grapes are chiefly grown for raisins, or, if pressed, the wine they yield is usually distilled. By far the most famous of the Cape wines is that of Constantia, produced at a wine-farm of that name, founded about 1690 by Simon van der Stell, at no great distance from Cape Town, and practically at the foot of Table Mountain. Next to Constantia in point of quality, the best wines of South Africa are those of the Cape proper,

Stellenbosch, Somerset West, Caledon, Paarl, Wellington, and Malmesbury, all of which are produced by the vineyards of what may be called the coastal area. Farther inland, at Worcester, Robertson, Montagu, Ladysmith, and Oudtshoorn the vines are cultivated on rich alluvial soil in sheltered valleys, and produce a greater quantity of grapes than it is possible to obtain anywhere else, yielding as much as 1,600 gallons of wine per acre, which is more than double the greatest yield obtainable in the coastal districts. Quantity, however, is never obtained but at the expense of quality, and the bulk of the wines made in the inland districts is and never can be otherwise than of indifferent quality. The vines cultivated in South Africa were originally the same *Riesling* as on the Rhine, the same *Pedro Ximenes* as at Jerez, the same *Shiraz* as at Hermitage, the same *Cabernet Sauvignon*, *Malbec*, or *Verdot* as in the Médoc; but these vines grow in much richer soil than their species ever knew in Europe, and their growth is assisted by mild winters, showery springs, and fine, dry summers, the

like of which has never been seen in any other part of the world. As a result, the same vines bear an enormously greater proportion of grapes in South Africa than in either France, Germany, Spain, or Portugal; when these grapes are pressed, their sweet juice is found to be quite different from the juice of the same species of grapes grown in European vineyards; it contains a great deal more sugar and water, but the other component parts do not increase in nearly the same ratio, so that the wine, which is eventually made from South African grapes may be more luscious and possess greater alcoholic strength than the wine made from similar grapes grown in Europe, and it will certainly be totally different. This being the case, the wine merchants of South Africa cannot be too highly commended for selling Cape wines under local names such as Red Tafelberg, Constantia Pontac, Riebeek Kasteel, Drakenstein, etc., instead of usurping the better known names of Claret or Burgundy, Port or Sherry. All the more honourable and all the more deserving of success is he

who fights for his own flag, who is proud of it, and who strives to make it respected, when he could save trouble and would find it more profitable to sail under false colours.

IX: THE WINES OF CALIFORNIA

FAR away from the amenities, the excitement and comforts of civilisation, in the bleak and lonely district of Eskdalemuir, in Dumfriesshire, there lives a brave man whose life-work is to look for trouble. Constantly watching uncanny instruments known as seismographs, or poring over the literature of seismology, the hermit of Eskdalemuir derives great satisfaction and no little pride from being in charge of one of the best-equipped geo-dynamic observatories in the world. His business is to tell the world where and when earthquakes may confidently be expected, and also, after it is all over, where, when, and how they occurred. His warnings are little heeded by the world; when the earthquake announced alters the shape of some extinct volcano at the bottom of the Pacific nobody minds, and when it

causes an appalling death-roll as at Messina or Valparaiso the expert has the gratification of saying to the world : " You see, I had told you so." But who thanks him for his pains, and who troubles to learn the lesson he would teach ? Nobody ! Our optimism is admirable and incurable ! In theory the pessimists are right, but in practice the optimists are seldom wrong. There was one man in San Francisco who, long before it actually occurred, had been expecting and preparing for the San Francisco earthquake ; he was the Chief of the Fire Brigade, and he knew that when the expected calamity took place the greatest danger of all would be the cutting off of the water supply and a general conflagration. He was a pessimist, but he was right, and for weeks and weeks he worked night and day to perfect a plan which would have saved the great city from the horrors of fire and panic. The fatal day at last came, and the far-seeing pessimist was the first man to be killed by the first chimney-pot that fell down ! The others—the thousands of men, women, and children—unreasoning optimists all, most of

them escaped unhurt and have rebuilt their destroyed homes as if nothing had happened, and as if nothing could ever happen again.

World-shaking earthquakes are, happily, few and far between, and most of us have every reason to hope being spared by them. There are other dangers, however, which surround us, and there is one calamity which we know must overtake us sooner or later. Priests of all creeds are very much like seismologists ; they warn the unheeding multitudes of the shock that is coming and bid them prepare for it. But who thanks them for it, and who troubles to learn the lesson they would teach ? Very few ! Our optimism is truly incomprehensible—and incorrigible. Nearly all the great men of the world have been pessimists, most of them have lived an unhappy life, and many have suffered a violent or miserable death. The great man does not aim at being happy but at making others happier, better or greater, and therein lies his own greatness. Such men are the salt of the earth ; they are the exception to the rule, and they are seldom appreciated

during their lifetime by selfish and greedy multitudes who acclaim them or tear them to pieces upon the slightest provocation. And yet history shows us that the instincts of the masses are usually right, and that the greatest men have made the greatest mistakes of all at some time or other. A country or even a town peopled exclusively by heroic men and women, made on the pattern of the greatest intellects the world has ever produced, is absolutely unthinkable. Could even a single house be inhabited entirely by great men without bloodshed and turmoil being the immediate consequence? A little salt with one's meat is excellent, but a little meat with much salt is detestable. This is so true that an all-wise Providence has so ordained the world we live in that really great and good men and women are scarce, and everything in the world that is really great and good is equally scarce or limited in extent; this is why it is all the more deserving of our regard and appreciation.

The quantity of wine which may claim to possess exceptional excellence is exceedingly

small, almost insignificant when compared with the enormous quantities of ordinary wines made in all parts of the world. There are a few casks of a very fine and delicate wine made at Berncastel, for instance, from the "Doctor" vineyards, but for each one cask of this precious liquid about a million gallons of very moderate wine are made from the vineyards of the Moselle. The quantity of wine produced at Ay, Romanée-Conti and Haut-Brion is but a very small fraction of the truly stupendous quantity of wine produced in France, most of which, however, cannot boast of any other claim to public favour than that it is ordinary, sound, wholesome wine, sufficiently abundant to be moderate in price.

The aristocrats among wines stand by themselves, and they are not only beyond the means but also beyond the appreciation of the immense majority of mankind. They are the exceptions, very valuable exceptions, which stand boldly for the highest standard of quality so that others may be guided in the right path. But, next to the exceptions

and far more important for everyday use, there is the rule; and the rule is sound, wholesome, ordinary wine, made from the naturally fermented juice of the grape, both refreshing and elevating, the most natural and comforting beverage within the reach of the great bulk of civilised races, the most powerful aid to the digestive organs, the most admirable food for the brain.

Plain, honest wine is made all the world over, and its universal appreciation is sufficiently proved by the fact that a greater area of the world's cultivated lands is devoted to its production than to that of anything else, the growing of wheat excepted. Chili, the Argentine, Brazil, Peru, Uruguay, and Bolivia, in South America, all have their vineyards, where large quantities of wine are produced for home consumption. In North America, Mexico and Canada also produce wine, but only in very small quantities compared with the quantity which is made every year in the United States. The vineyards of the United States may be divided into two very distinct categories the one east and the other west

of the Rockies. The vines which grow in the eastern States are species indigenous to the country; they are very hardy and very prolific, and they possess a remarkable power of resisting the attacks of the phylloxera. This is the reason why European growers have adopted these American vines to replant their devastated vineyards; their roots resist much longer than those of European species to subterranean pests, but their wood is not allowed to bear its natural crop; they are used as the hardy briar is for standard roses; the grapes they produce in Europe, like the flowers of the standard, are those of the species grafted on them. In the eastern States, however, the indigenous American vines grow in their natural state and produce a large quantity of grapes, from which a very moderate kind of wine is made which requires national prejudice or local idiosyncrasies to be appreciated.

Conditions are very different, indeed, on the western side of the Rockies, along the sun-bathed coast of the Pacific, in California. Not only are the climate and soil of California

better suited to the culture of the vine than any other part of the States, but the species of vines grown there are some of the best European species, and they are cultivated in a most scientific manner, with the result that the reputation of the wines of California has long since travelled farther than the limits of its native State, and has spread from America to the older civilisations of Europe and Asia.

California is the westernmost State of the U.S.A., extending from parallel 32 deg. 28 mins. to parallel 42 deg. north latitude. In the north, it adjoins British Columbia, and in the south, it reaches Mexico, whilst the Pacific to the west and the great range of the Sierra Nevada to the east form its natural boundaries. California has a coastline of over 900 miles and an area of 158,360 square miles. To realise what such figures mean one should compare them with those of more familiar lands, remembering, for instance, that the total area of Great Britain is 88,000 square miles, and that its greatest length, from Land's End to the northernmost point,

Dunnett Head, is 600 miles. The immense area and the peculiar geographical position of California make it impossible to speak in general terms of the climate, the soil, or the produce of the land ; its climate is both arctic and tropical, and its vegetal and mineral wealth varies very considerably, both in kind and in extent, within so vast a territory. In all but the most northern districts of California the climate is well suited to viticulture. The early Spanish missionaries and explorers who brought civilisation to California found the wild vine growing luxuriantly throughout the land ; they were the first to cultivate the native species of vines in California and the first to import cuttings of European stocks ; but neither they nor their immediate successors appear to have succeeded in producing a wine sufficiently palatable to be appreciated anywhere else but locally. For many years, the gold mines of California proved too great an attraction for viticulture to receive much attention ; immigrants streamed into the country whose one idea was to satisfy with the least possible delay and at all costs their

gnawing hunger, insatiable thirst, and accursed craving for gold. It was not until the mines began to show signs of exhaustion that immigrants turned from the inferno of the mining pits to the paradise of sheltered valleys, where undulating vineyards yielded abundant and refreshing fruit, which more than repaid the little care they demanded.

It was only in 1875, a quarter of a century after California had been admitted to the Union, that the State authorities took official notice of the wine-making industry of the country. In that year, the Legislature of California realised for the first time that viticulture should be encouraged and that it might become one of the most important branches of agriculture within the State and one which was more likely than any other to attract a desirable class of immigrants; that is to say, men who would work and settle on the land.

A Viticulture Commission was appointed, and it sent to Europe an expert whose mission it was to bring back cuttings of the most suitable European species of vines. This

Commission did but little good, probably owing to the limited powers and means it possessed, but it made it evident that the natural resources of the country were such as to render viticulture and the wine industry most profitable, if only the State would lend effectual help at the beginning to enable experiments being made and encouragement being accorded to the growers. The result was the creation by the State Legislature, in March, 1880, of a State Board of Viticulture and the grant thereto of the necessary funds. The wine-growing area of California was then divided into seven districts, and the Board consisted of one Commissioner from each of these seven districts and of two other Commissioners representing the State. This Board set to work immediately, started experimental stations, and issued periodical reports giving to the growers valuable advice as to the species of vines they should select for their vineyards according to the climate, aspect, and soil of each different district.

In 1880, before the creation of the State Board of Viticulture, there were about 35,000

acres in California planted with vines, and only about twenty per cent. of the grapes then grown were of European varieties; in 1888, the vineyards of California covered 150,000 acres and ninety per cent. of these were planted with suitably chosen European species of vines. In 1877, the total amount of wine made in California was only 4,000,000 gallons; in 1886, it had increased to 18,000,000 gallons; and the average yearly production for the years 1908–1912 in California was 43,465,565 gallons of wine and 2,189,908 gallons of brandy, besides which there are large quantities of table-grapes grown, no less than 53,829 acres of land being entirely devoted to the culture of table-grapes.

Of all the differences which necessarily exist between California and Europe, the greatest and most characteristic is assuredly the human element. In the old world, farmers cultivate small vineyards of their own with care and pride, and they mostly aim at producing a better wine from their small estate than their neighbours. When the growers sell either their grapes or their wine,

they receive widely different prices in the same districts, according to the exact position and aspect of each vineyard, and according to the degree of excellence of either grapes or wines; a road or even a path may divide vineyards the produce of which will fetch widely different prices and yield wines which will never be blended together, being sold under the distinctive names to which they are entitled, and with the mention of the year when they were made. The proper appreciation of the particular merits of different vintages and of different growths is one of the greatest charms wine has for connoisseurs, and lovers of wine declare that to learn how to appreciate wine more than amply repays the little trouble and expense it necessitates. In the old world, wine-making is an art; in America, it is an industry. One concern alone, in California, has over ten million dollars invested in the local wine "industry"; in 1902, they crushed 225,000 tons of grapes; their stocks of wine are over 30,000,000 gallons, and one of their stores alone holds 10,000,000 gallons. Compare such figures

with the quantities of wine made or stocked by the wealthiest champagne or port shipper, with the production and stocks of wine at Steinberg, Clos de Vougeot or Château Margaux. There is no comparison possible. The 30,000,000 gallons held by the one Californian concern referred to above cannot be of uniform quality, but if each individual wine had to be sold under its own name and according to its intrinsic merit there would be a tremendous loss of time, labour, and money, all of which can be greatly minimised by judicious blending. It is thus that a comparatively few types are offered to the public, all of which are made up to a certain standard of quality which it is possible to maintain year by year. It also has the great advantage of creating amongst the public a well-deserved feeling of confidence in the constant type and standard quality of these wines. To know that they can rely upon getting a wholesome, full or light, sweet or dry, red or white California wine when they ask for it, is of far greater importance to and more truly appreciated by most people than if they had to pick and

choose between the wines of different vintages produced in the counties of Tulare, Santa Clara, Alameda, Napa, Santa Cruz, Contra Costa, Fresno, or Sonoma, and from sundry vineyards of more or less repute in each of these counties.

X: THE VINEYARDS OF AUSTRALIA

THE irony of fate, the futility of our efforts and our helplessness ever to achieve our most cherished ideals are mercifully hidden from our view, so that we struggle on hopefully or thoughtlessly from day to day.

Ancient dynasties have shone brilliantly and ended miserably; great men have raised their country to the highest pinnacle of fame or precipitated it into the lowest depths of desolation; noble illusions and futile delusions have led whole nations either to glorious conquests or irreparable ruin; and we find on every page of the history of the human race proofs that the unexpected usually happens, that the improbable often does and that even the impossible sometimes proves possible.

The British Empire is one of the most

striking examples of man's insignificance and of God's Providence. Without any carefully drawn plan, rational method or continuity of policy, the British Empire has grown up haphazard and its strength, cohesion and stability are all the more admirable that they are almost inexplicable if not wholly incomprehensible.

Australia, also, is a remarkable instance of the assistance which a kind fate may render to short-sighted, blundering men. Banishment was first ordered as a punishment for rogues and vagrants by statute in Elizabeth's reign, but no place was there specified. The practice of transporting criminals oversea is said to have commenced in 1619, when convicts were first sent to the American colonies. The War of Independence and the Peace of Versailles deprived the English Government of their favourite dumping ground for undesirables, and somebody having suggested that they could not be sent too far, Parliament decided, in 1786, to make a convict settlement at the " other end of the world," at Botany Bay. The following year, in 1787,

the first convict fleet sailed from England carrying seven hundred and seventy-six convicts, men and women, as well as some cattle, and it reached New South Wales in 1788. Nothing was then known about Australia, and the people of England were far too much interested in the debate upon the Prince of Wales' marriage with Mrs. Fitzherbert to give a thought to that far off land of the convicts, where, travellers reported, the birds had no song nor had the flowers any smell; where neither corn nor fruit-trees grew, where there were neither horse, sheep, dog nor rabbit; where all that which is required for the needs or comfort of man was wanting. It was not until the beginning of the last century that the mere outlines of the whole coast were known, and no prophet would ever have dared to hint, a hundred years ago, that such splendid cities as Sydney and Melbourne would ever spring into existence. And yet, in spite of tremendous difficulties and a most inauspicious start, Australia has become within an astoundingly short space of time a land of Canaan; the wheat of its fields, the

wool of its sheep, the carcasses of its cattle and the wine of its vineyards compete in all the great markets of Europe with the produce of the richest lands of the world.

The vine is said to have been first imported into Australia in 1815 and on several occasions since, but apparently without any success until the year 1832, when James Busby brought to Sydney an important collection of vines selected from the Luxembourg collection, in Paris. The climate of many parts of Australia, and the soil in several important districts are eminently suited to the culture of the vine. The only fault to be found with either soil or climate is that both are too good. A peach grown in England in the open will mature slowly after many vicissitudes and several alternate periods of rain and sunshine, but it will be more juicy and possess a far finer flavour than peaches grown in greater plenty and under a much more genial climate in the South of France or in Italy. It is the same with grapes: the more uncertain the climate and the crop; the poorer the soil and the smaller

the yield, the greater will be the excellence and the finer the bouquet of the wine. On the other hand, if the soil and climate of Australia be too good, the same cannot be said of the labour market. The native races of Australia are of a very low type both physically and mentally; they are altogether unfit for the intelligent and conscientious work required in a vineyard. Up to 1838, convict labour was practically the only means of tending the vines, but such labour, although inexpensive, was not altogether satisfactory, and, at any rate, it is no longer obtainable. To import French or German vine-dressers has been resorted to on several occasions and has given by far the best results, but it has the great drawback of being a very expensive undertaking; Chinese labour might solve the problem and give a great impetus to Australian viticulture; the Chinaman is a cheap commodity still; he is naturally industrious, precise, conscientious and hard-working, and he would soon become an expert vine-grower, but he is much too good a worker ever to have a chance of being allowed in Australia.

The dearth and great cost of skilled labour in Australia is a serious handicap to viticulture. On the other hand, it has caused vine-growers to seek and adopt some extremely ingenious mechanical labour-saving devices in the manufacture of wine. Wine-making in Australia is accordingly less of an art but more of a scientifically conducted industry than in Europe.

The vines are planted in rows and usually in the same direction as the most prevalent hot winds. The distance between each root is appreciably greater than in most European vineyards, so that multiple furrow ploughs may be used instead of the hand spade or hoe. The vintage usually takes place in March, beginning sometimes during the latter part of February, and no machinery has yet been discovered to replace manual labour for the picking of the grapes ; pickers, like all workers in Australia, are difficult to find and expensive to pay, receiving on an average more than double the wages paid to vintagers in Europe. Once picked, the grapes are sent in trucks to the winery where they are

crushed and pressed by machinery. The treading of grapes which still obtains in many vine-lands of Southern Europe may be picturesque and give excellent results: it certainly has the greatest antiquity as its best recommendation and it is no less certainly slow and somewhat wasteful. But things are more up to date in Australia; if one enters one of the big wineries at vintage time, one may rightly be astonished to find at work there powerful hydraulic presses of the latest pattern; some are formidable looking pieces of machinery, entirely steel framed, with a twenty-four inch diameter cylinder and worked from a pump with high and low pressure plungers, automatically governed so that the pressure can be set for either plunger, and no further attention need be given by the attendant during either day or night: these presses are masterpieces of scientific labour-saving mechanism!

The grapes are first of all "stemmed," or mechanically detached from their green stems and then crushed and dropped into fermenting tanks, the mass of juice, skins and pips

forming what is called the " marc." From the fermenting tanks, the " marc " is placed into iron-bound cages mounted on portable carriages and run on lines to the hydraulic press, where it is pressed and drained, the press being capable of a pressure of two hundred and twenty tons on the " marc." The cage is then run under a gantry, where it is hoisted over a dray, the dry husks being dropped out and eventually carted back to the vineyards where they are used as manure. Meanwhile, the juice or " must " is pumped through hoses into polished cement vats where it is left until the fermentation is completed.

Fermentation is a very remarkable phenomenon which in the old world is allowed a considerable share of liberty. The Jerez grower discovers that after fermentation, ten casks of wine which he had pressed from the grapes of the same vineyards contain wines of different grades of quality, and the only explanation he can give is that they have each been affected differently by fermentation. In Germany, too, the wine of one

fuder will be found to be either superior or the reverse to the wine of another fuder from the same Estate ; again, fermentation is blamed or praised, as the case may be, and it is said to give each individual fuder its special value. This never happens in Australia where fermentation does not take place haphazard but under the most scientific supervision. The heat of the early summer sometimes rises to 120 degrees in the shade, a temperature which makes it absolutely necessary to adopt some ingenious cooling devices, and other methods of artificially regulating the fermentation.

So great a heat would also cause considerable losses, owing to expansion and excessive evaporation, if the wines were kept in hogsheads or comparatively small casks ; to avoid this, it is customary to store new wine in large vessels, some of which hold as much as 5,000 gallons.

In some districts, the heat is so great that a very thorough system of irrigation alone makes it possible to grow grapes for wine-making and distilling purposes. On the

whole, the vineyards of Australia suffer from excessive heat at certain times and a lack of rain; this is particularly the case in the Mildura district where, however, the finest raisins, sultanas and currants are grown, thanks to scientific irrigation.

Before the war, the average output of Australian wine was about six million gallons per annum, or half the pre-war average output of Serbia and about a fourth of the pre-war average output of either Bulgaria or Roumania, but whilst these Balkan States had little margin left ever to increase their production of wine, that of Australia might easily be a hundred times greater should the demand warrant it, and even then, it would still be less than half the average production of wine in France.

Australian wine looms large on the station posters; the enterprising way in which those responsible for its sale in England have advertised it is all the more effective that it has practically no competitor in the advertising field. Systematic and intelligent advertising, if consistently persevered with, will always

bear fruit, and, as regards Australian wines, it was responsible for the fact that just before the war the Commonwealth shipped to England no less than ten per cent. of its average yearly wine production, which represented about five per cent. of the total consumption of wine in the British Isles. But whatever money may be spent upon posters and other advertisements, it would be futile to hope maintain, and far less increase the popularity of Australian wines in this country, unless sound wines are offered to the public at comparatively low prices. Good value for money and not sentiment is the only solid basis upon which to build a lasting commercial reputation.

There may be a certain number of enthusiastic imperialists who will respond to the appeal of Australian wine-growers to drink "imperially," whatever the consequences, but the bulk of the population in these islands, although equally loyal to the Empire, will not drink Colonial wines simply on patriotic grounds; they will insist on a modicum of enjoyment and benefit in return for their money.

Canada refuses to allow British subjects to land upon her shores if they hail from India, but she opens her arms to Poles and Armenians. And yet, the British Empire outside Great Britain comprises about a quarter of the whole world, including untold numbers of men and women of all creeds and races, who are kept within the Empire, if not actually in subjection to it, by barely ten million white people of European origin. There must be a strong bond to unite such a stupendous and heterogeneous population as that of the British Empire. It would be sheer folly to expect the native races of Asia and Africa to be sentimentally devoted to the Empire ; their loyalty is due neither to love nor to fear, but it is based on the fact that the majority of them realise that they have much to gain and little to lose by being loyal. Hindus and Moslems, Kaffirs and Maoris enjoy greater comfort and more freedom under British rule than if they were left to misgovern themselves or if they were ruled by any other European nation. There is no stronger bond than the bond of interest

which unites all races within the British Empire ; may this strength never be sapped by the misplaced sentimentality of well-meaning idealists !

Love does not depend upon reciprocity but interest does. Many a fond mother has loved an ungrateful child and many a devoted wife has loved a callous bully, but a merchant does not sell his wares except at a profit, and those to whom he sells them buy them only because they cannot buy better or cheaper goods elsewhere. This is why the trade between Great Britain and the oversea Dominions must necessarily be based upon the mutual interests of buyer and seller irrespective of all sentimental or political consideration. Australian wool is sold in London at the Wool Exchange at the same time and in the same way as fleeces from the Argentine. The bidders are a cosmopolitan crowd, whose sole ambition is to buy the best wool at the lowest price ; the better they succeed the greater will their own gain be and the greater will also be the gain of the public eventually. It was the same with

Canadian and Russian wheat; open competition results in either higher quality or lower prices and in either case the consumer does or should benefit. Wine is no exception to the rule; like wheat, wool and other necessaries of life, it is produced in large quantities within the limits of the British Empire, but it has to compete with the wines of the world whenever it is sent to these islands. This is resented by some of the Australian wine-growers as unfair to children of the Empire, who, they claim, should be helped by the Mother Country, forgetting that they themselves heavily tax the goods which are sent them from "home."

It is true that France does not tax Algerian wines but Algeria does not tax French goods, whilst both tax the foreigner; Australia cannot demand what she refuses herself to grant. The sale of Australian wines in England does great credit to the enterprise, energy and intelligence of those who are engaged in that branch of the wine trade; the success they have achieved is all the more meritorious that the difficulties which they have had to

overcome have been and still are very considerable: they have to pay higher wages in Australia than in any other vine-growing country; their total production of wine is much smaller than that of any European vine-growing country, not excepting Switzerland; their wines have to be shipped from a far greater distance and at greater cost than those of Europe or Africa; and, unfortunately, the style of Australian wines is such that they have little chance of ever successfully competing with any but the cheapest descriptions of European wines which are produced at much smaller cost, in enormously larger quantities and so much nearer home. Truly such are terrible odds; brave must they be who accepted them, and praised should they be who so truly deserve the success they have won.

XI : BRANDY

THE art of distillation, taken in its most comprehensive sense, was known to the Ancients, who distilled sea water and certain perfumes. But the process of distillation does not appear to have been applied to wine before the end of the eleventh century, when Marcus Græcus wrote the oldest treatise we possess on distillation. Doctor Albucasis, who lived at Cordoba, in Spain, during the twelfth century, also wrote a detailed description of a distilling apparatus in use at that time for the distillation of rose water and of wine. It was only during the thirteenth century, however, that the distillation of wine was placed on a more scientific basis by R. Lulli and Arnaud de Villeneuve. The merits of burnt wine, or brandy, then began to be recognised in the schools and at the courts of Europe. " Some people call it Eau de Vie," wrote Arnaud de Villeneuve,

" and this name is remarkably suitable, since it is really a water of immortality. Its virtues are beginning to be recognised; it prolongs life, clears away ill-humours, revives the heart, and maintains youth."

At that early period, the distillers were quite infatuated with the marvellous qualities of distilled wine: they imagined that it contained some of the attributes of the fire which had helped to make it; they sought to prolong distillation as much as possible, and they endeavoured to let the contact between the liquid in the still and the heat of the fire be as long as possible, thinking that such was the surest means of obtaining a more fiery spirit.

During the fourteenth century, much progress was made in the art of distillation, both in France and Germany, and the medicinal use of burnt wine or brandy was then very general on the Continent. The early methods of distilling wine were both slow and wasteful, and as they were long adhered to, brandy remained comparatively expensive, and beyond the reach of the mass of the people until

the eighteenth century, when the distillation of wine on a large and commercial scale was rendered possible by scientific appliances of modern invention.

In England, Aqua Vitæ does not appear to have enjoyed any popularity before the sixteenth century, although some knowledge of the art of distillation was probably brought to this country by Raymond Lulli, during the reign of Edward III.

In 1525, a translation of Jerome Braunschweig's important work on distillation was published in London under the title of " The Vertuose Boke of Distyllacyon, for the help and profit of surgeons, physicians, pothecaries and all manner of people." The " Vertuose Boke " is the earliest work of any importance published in England with a view to popularise the art of distillation ; it bestows glowing praises upon Aqua Vitæ, but advocates its use in strict moderation. " Aqua Vitæ," we read in the " Vertuose Boke," " is commonly called the mistress of all medicines, for it easeth the diseases coming from cold. It giveth also young courage in a person, and

causeth him to have good memory and remembrance. It purifyeth the five wits of melancholy and of all uncleanliness when it is drunk by reason and measure; that is to understand, five or six drops in the morning, fasting, in a spoonful of wine. . . ."

In 1559, when Peter Morwyng published his "Treasure of Evonymous," wine was no longer distilled solely by apothecaries to be doled out in counted drops for medicinal purposes. There were then in London some distillers whose trade consisted in distilling the wine-lees and unsound wines which they obtained at low prices from the vintners and coopers. This practice was considered not only legitimate, but also likely to give excellent results. "Aqua Vitæ," wrote Morwyng, "is drawne oute of wyne, but, wyth us, out of the wyne lies [*sic*] only, specially of them that sel it, and by this onely almost get their livying. And peradventure it is never a whit the worse that it is drawne oute of lees; for Lullus teacheth that it may be wel distilled of corrupt wine, yea, if it be dis-

tilled often it shall be made the more effectual (that is to say) hotter and drier."

The rapidity with which the popularity of even this crude, home-made spirit spread in England is evidenced by the numerous editions of the works on distillation. Two editions of the " Treasure of Evonymous " were printed in 1559 ; a little later, another treatise on the same subject by Conrad Gesner, and translated by George Baker, was published under the title of the " Newe Jewell of Health," and the demand was so great that several editions had to be issued within a short space of time. In the " Jewell of Health," we read that good wine was sometimes used for distillation, but the process was then considered very wasteful : " The Burning Water, or Water of Life, is sometimes distilled out of pleasant and good wine, as the white or the red, but oftener out of the wine-lees of a certain eager-savour or corrupt wine. Further, when out of pure wine a Water of Life is distilled, I hear that out of a great quantity of good wine, a little yield or quantity of Burning Water is to be distilled, but out of the lees of wine

a much [greater] yield and quantity [are] gathered."

Needless to say, the brandy which was distilled from sound wine, in those countries where wine was sufficiently cheap and plentiful, was far superior to the spirit obtained from wine-lees and sour dregs. When the foreign article began to be imported on a more important scale, in the early part of the seventeenth century, it was found so much better than the home-made product that, in spite of the difference in price, the competition threatened to ruin completely English distillers. But, far from proving a death blow to the rising national distilling industry in England, the competition of the infinitely better foreign brandies proved to be its best friend. Realising the hopelessness of their position, English distillers abandoned the distillation of any kind of wine, and devoted their energies entirely to distilling a perfectly distinct spirit from home-grown grain. Brandy, or distilled wine, continued to be imported in England during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, in spite of ever-increasing duties and

prohibitive tariffs, which were responsible for the rapid and extensive growth of smuggling.

Brandy is a spirit distilled from wine; it has no geographical significance whatsoever. Brandy may be distilled anywhere in the world where there is wine to be distilled. For the last three centuries, brandy has been imported into England from many districts of France, from Germany, Italy. Spain, Portugal, Teneriffe, and, more recently, from the Levant, Cyprus, the Cape, Australia, and California. But, just as the wines of different parts of the world and of different districts within the same country differ considerably in style and quality, so also the brandies distilled from all such wines have very distinct characteristics and greatly varying degrees of excellence. The brandy which may rightly claim precedence over all others, both in point of antiquity and of excellence, is the brandy of Cognac.

Cognac is the name of a small town on the river Charente, in the heart of a wine-growing district of France, famous all the world over

for the excellence of its brandies. As far back as the reign of King John, and for many centuries afterwards, the wines of Saintonge, Aunis and Angoumois were shipped to England as Rochelle wines and sold at cheaper rates than any others. These wines were then thought to be somewhat thin and rather light, and such are still their characteristics to-day; but, if the wines of the Charentes have always lacked body, they yield, when distilled, a brandy of exceptional excellence and inimitable character. The only brandy entitled to the name of "Cognac" is that which has been distilled from wine produced by the vines grown within a strictly limited district known as the *Région délimitée*. This comprises the greater part of the two départements of Charente and Charente Inférieure, and a small area in the two other neighbouring départements of Deux Sèvres, to the north, and Dordogne, to the south.

The vineyards of the Cognac district may be divided in two main classes—the Champagnes and the Bois.

On the left bank of the river Charente,

and in the western part of the Charente Département, are situated the vineyards of the Grande Champagne and Petite Champagne; these produce by far the finest Cognac brandies, whilst on the opposite side of the river, the Borderies district also produces Cognac brandy of remarkable excellence. In the Grande Champagne, Petite Champagne and Borderies districts the soil is distinctly calcareous, and it differs materially from that of any other part of the officially recognised area outside which no brandy may be distilled which is entitled to the name of Cognac. It is chiefly due to the peculiar nature of the soil of the said three districts that their vineyards produce a distinctive and constant type of brandy of greater finesse and better quality than any other, and one which no connoisseur can fail to identify.

Outside the above-named three districts, the quality, flavour, and distinctive properties of the Cognac brandies made in the rest and by far the greater part of the *Région délimitée* vary to a very considerable extent, according to the nature of the soil and the climatic

conditions of each particular locality. There are vines, for instance, growing on clay soil in the eastern part of the *Région*, whilst those of the western vineyards, situated in the immediate proximity of the Atlantic, grow on sandy soil and in a more moist atmosphere. The wines made from the grapes gathered in vineyards so widely different will naturally have different characteristics, which will be noticeable in the brandies they will yield, but all such brandies are equally entitled to the name of " Cognac," whether they are sold by themselves or blended together. In other words, the appellation " Cognac " has a strictly limited geographical meaning ; it denotes a spirit distilled from wine made from the vineyards of the *Région délimitée*, of which Cognac is the centre. Such a spirit, however, may vary considerably, according to the many differences existing between the soil, climate and aspect of each particular growth or *terroir* within the Cognac region, as well as according to the more or less suitable methods of distillation employed locally and to the more or less judicious blending

operations of distillers and merchants. Furthermore, the words Grande or Fine Champagne and Petite Champagne are geographical expressions corresponding to the peculiar chalky soil formation of a small and very distinct area within the Cognac region, where the best Cognac brandies are made.

Farther south, in the Département of Gers, some very good brandy is made, which, after that of Cognac, is the best produced in France. It is known as Armagnac brandy, and it is very highly prized by some connoisseurs. A very large quantity of brandy is also distilled in the south of France, in Spain, and, generally speaking, wherever vines grow and wine is made on an extensive scale. Brandy, like all spirits, when they leave the still, is at first quite white; it acquires a pale amber colour after being kept some years in cask, but, however long it may be left in cask, and however new might be the wood of the cask, brandy never acquires of its own accord a dark brown colour and a sweet taste, such as are often found in the brandies of the hotel and restaurant type.

Both colour and sweetness are added by the seller in varying degrees according to the taste or absence of taste shown by the buyer. Caramel, prune juice, patent spirit and even water in moderate quantity are not unwholesome, and, when intelligently blended together, they form a fairly safe mixture which may give a certain amount of satisfaction at very little cost, but he whose tastes lean towards simpler things, and who has a sufficiently well-educated palate to appreciate the pure distilled juice of the grape, should know that a little well-matured brandy, particularly a good Cognac brandy, is the essence of ten times the same quantity of wine; that the money which was necessary to purchase the said wine and to distil it has been unproductive for many years, during which the brandy has been slowly and naturally maturing; that the district which produces Cognac brandies is very limited in its extent, and that the demand has of late increased much more rapidly than the production; that the Chancellor of the Exchequer levies a tax of eight shillings and elevenpence

on every bottle of brandy at proof strength. When these facts are borne in mind, one realises that, whatever the label or the catalogue description may be, a bottle of brandy from the right district, of the right age, and at the right alcoholic strength cannot be retailed in this country at a lower price than a poulterer asks for a good Surrey fowl.

XII: WHISKY

IF there is such a thing as a child whom fairy tales bore and who prefers the study of algebra to a game of hazard, he or she is merely a freak of nature much more deserving of pity than of envy. Our tastes and our inclinations, our habits and our surroundings, our means and our aims all vary considerably; but we all are, nevertheless, subject to certain natural laws; they may be broken occasionally with more or less impunity by individuals, but never by humanity as a whole. To satisfy one's hunger by food, for instance, is one of the fundamental laws of Nature, and although such a law may be successfully broken by law-breaking, window-smashing suffragettes, the principal daily business of the immense majority of a suffering humanity still is and is likely ever to remain: how to procure food for one's daily needs. To eat, to drink, and to sleep are

needs which are common to man and beast alike all the world over; to herd together, to bully the weak, and to love one's offspring are instincts which are equally natural to the majority of men and animals; but ours, and ours only, is the ever-present consciousness of the unknown; the instinctive love or fear of what is beyond the world and beyond our ken; the insatiable curiosity about our own origin and ultimate end; the restless longing to move aside farther and farther the heavy veil which hides from our view the admirable laws and marvellous secrets of Nature.

Our thirst for knowledge is not only one of the characteristic privileges of the race. It is also the most ancient of all human instincts and cravings, since our mother Eve was moved thereby to pluck the fatal apple from the Tree of Knowledge. It was this same thirst for knowledge which led our forefathers to seek the "life" principle which rendered their beverages both palatable and comforting.

Plain water is an abundant and a cheap commodity; it quenches one's thirst more

effectively than alcohol, and much more economically. This is so evident that some people find it difficult to understand why Nature's abundant supply of water has never been so keenly appreciated by man as it is by all the other animals which people the earth. From the very earliest ages down to the present day, we find that men have spent, and are still spending, a considerable part of their time, energy, and money to manufacture alcoholic beverages. From the lowest type of savage to the most highly civilised and cultured races, the same waste of trouble and treasure still goes on to-day as at the opening of the annals of the world's history, as the result of our craving for alcohol and our wilful persistence in ignoring plain water. It cannot be said that our love of alcohol is a luxury—an acquired taste—or one of the means devised by the idle rich to get rid of their superfluous gold. The wealthy classes have their diamond tiaras and motor cars; the middle classes go to classical concerts or fill suburban gardens with bulbs and seeds; the lower classes go into elaborate

mourning or wear pearl buttons ; all vie with each other in the universal race for show and luxuries, heedless of cost or consequences. Jewels, flowers, or crape are the result of civilisation. They are luxuries, since we used to do without them and could easily dispense with them. Not so alcohol, since the love of alcohol is not peculiar to either rich or poor ; civilised or uncivilised man ; modern or ancient history ; hot or cold climates. Alcoholic beverages are to-day what they have always been all the world over—Nature's own gift to man to comfort and console him during his weary days on earth. The world could no more do without alcohol than without fire, but, also like fire, alcohol has been the perdition and the end of many ; it is the flame which warms him who approaches warily but which consumes him who comes too near.

Whether it be wine, ale, metheglin, or any other beverage known of old, they all contained alcohol as the inevitable consequence of natural fermentation which transformed into alcohol the sugar of the grape, of the

apple, or of any other fruit, root, and sap used in the making of ancient drinks. Our forefathers saw their fruit juice or honeyed mixtures " boil " but they did not understand the mechanism of fermentation. They knew that their fermented liquors contained a " life " principle, a " fire " which comforted, elevated, and, perchance, intoxicated them, but they were a very long time in finding out that the " soul " of their beverages was what we now call alcohol. To separate the " soul," or the more volatile part, from the " body," or the grosser matters, of any fermented liquid occupied the time and exercised the ingenuity of the old alchemists for centuries. They at last succeeded, and the process which made their success possible is known as the art of distillation.

Strictly speaking, the art of distillation, as applied to spirits, consists in isolating by heat the different elements of which alcoholic liquids are composed. It is by fermentation not by distillation, that alcohol is formed, so that the first care of the distiller is to obtain, by means of fermentation, an alcoholic liquid

or mash, which he shall distil in order to separate the alcohol from some of the water and other matters it contains.

Different elements are affected differently by heat. The heat, for instance, which will melt butter will not melt lead, and the heat which will suffice to melt lead will not melt copper ; so that, if one had a piece of mineral composed of lead and copper, one could separate them by heat because the lead would melt first.

In the same way, the boiling point of water being 100 degrees Centigrade, if one were to heat some sea water to 100 degrees the water would be vaporised, that is to say, it would become vapour—or steam—but the salt originally contained in the sea water would remain intact because a temperature about ten times greater is necessary to vaporise salt.

If one realises this difference in the effect of heat upon different elements, the " mystery " of distillation becomes quite clear. Water is vaporised by heat at 100 degrees and ethyl alcohol at 78 degrees, so that if we place over

the fire some alcoholic liquid, and if we are careful to regulate our fire and to see that the temperature of the mash never reaches 100 degrees, we ought to obtain vapours of alcohol as soon as the temperature reaches 78 degrees and so long as it remains there. If this were the case, distillation would be very much simpler than it is; but such a close affinity exists between water and alcohol that the former is always ready to follow the latter, and seems loath to be parted from it. It is true that pure ethyl alcohol (anhydre) is vaporised at a temperature of 78 degrees, but a liquid containing 50 per cent. of alcohol and 50 per cent. of water requires a temperature of 83·1 degrees to be vaporised, whilst a temperature of 92·6 degrees is necessary to vaporise a liquid containing but 10 per cent. of alcohol, and 92·6 degrees is dangerously near the 100 degree limit when all the water will be vaporised. This being the case, the vapours which will be produced by heating any alcoholic liquid will not be vapours of pure alcohol; they will still contain a certain proportion of water and of

the other elements contained in the mash in the still. These vapours are then condensed by cold and collected in a separate receptacle. If the proportion of alcohol they contain is found to be too small, the same ordeal by fire is again resorted to ; the liquid placed in the still over the fire will then contain more alcohol than the first time, with the result that less heat will be required to vaporise it, and when the vapours obtained will be condensed and tested they will be found to contain the same quantity of alcohol as before, but a much smaller amount of water. By repeating the same process long enough it is theoretically possible to extract from any alcoholic liquid all the alcohol contained therein. In practice, however, this is not absolutely so, and, in most cases, it is not even desirable. The object of distillation, when applied to potable spirits, is not to separate all or nearly all the alcohol from the water, ethers, essential oils and other component parts of any alcoholic liquid. A light wine and strong beer, for instance, are very different alcoholic liquids, although

both contain some ethyl alcohol. If both wine and beer could be distilled and redistilled or rectified until all the ethyl alcohol contained in each had been isolated, the spirit thus obtained would be identical in each case, it would be simply plain or pure spirit, plain or pure not only because it would be free from all water, but also and chiefly because it would be free from all such by-products as are always contained in grape juice or malted barley. On the other hand, if the proportion of water contained in both wine and beer has been reduced by distillation to 20 per cent. of their volume in each instance, the result will be a grape spirit and a malt spirit as distinct as the wine and beer they were distilled from. The alcohol, at the chemical point of view, will be identical in each case, but the by-products or impurities will be very different, and it is these by-products which are responsible for the distinctiveness of all spirits other than highly rectified spirits which should contain none. In all alcoholic liquids, the ethers, essential oils, mineral and vegetal

matters and other component parts vary greatly, some being retained with advantage after distillation, whilst others must be eliminated altogether. Thus, wine distilled until it contained 99 per cent. of ethyl alcohol would be purer as spirit, but worse as brandy, than wine distilled to 75 per cent. On the other hand, a liquid fermented from mouldy potatoes, old rags, or sawdust, if distilled to 50 per cent. would be unfit for human consumption and 49 per cent. worse, as well as less pure, than a spirit obtained from similar sources but distilled to 99 per cent.

Spirits owe their different characteristics to the nature and proportions of the by-products they contain, and these vary according to the nature of the alcoholic liquids from which different spirits are distilled and also according to different methods of distillation.

Whisky is a grain spirit of which there is an unlimited number of types, styles, and varieties. For many years Whisky was the only spirituous beverage within the reach of the Irish and Scotch poorer classes. It was distilled in a simple pot still and over an open

fire. Its taste and flavour varied considerably according to the way each distiller had dried his malt; according to the different burns from which the water had been drawn to make the mash; according to the fuel used to distil it; and according to the place and the way in which the newly-distilled spirit had been stored. All these distinctive characteristics still exist to-day amongst Whiskies which are distilled in different parts of Scotland and of Ireland, but they are little known and will never be appreciated by the millions who now drink Whisky all the world over. A spirit distilled from malted barley contains certain essential oils and volatile bodies which render it very distinctive, but not necessarily palatable to others than those whom heredity, early training, or long practice have taught to like it. This is why Whisky never attained to more than a very limited and purely local reputation until the advent of the blender. The blender is not troubled by the rival claims to superior excellence of the Whiskies produced in sundry districts and by various distilleries in each

district; the blender does not ask whether better or worse results are obtained through peat fires or steam-heating; or through pot or patent stills. The blender's business is to understand what the public require, to give the public confidence in the article he has to sell, and to supply the wants of the public satisfactorily and profitably. The blender has succeeded in this three-fold object, thanks to the judicious use he has made of the patent or silent spirit. Needless to say, there is much Whisky one can obtain in the making of which no patent spirit was ever used, but the fact remains that the bulk of the enormous Whisky trade which has been built up during the last fifty years in England and all over the world owes its existence chiefly to the enterprise and intelligence of the blenders. With the produce of every still in the Highlands differing from each other in flavour and taste, how could a world-wide trade have been built by any one firm unless means had been devised to gain and retain their customers' confidence in the uniform quality of the Whisky covered by the firm's name or brand?

It is quite true that the old-fashioned definition of Whisky: "A grain spirit obtained from malted barley by pot still distillation" —has had to be abandoned, but this sacrifice is not so great, after all; the change has been brought about by the blenders, but it has benefited the distillers and satisfied the public. Is not such an end ample justification of the means which gained it?

XIII : RUM

THE philosophy of public-house sign-boards has exercised the ingenuity of many artists and moralists of old. He or she who sold ale or wine in ancient times used to simply hang over his or her door a bunch of ivy or evergreens. This " bush " was both a sign and a symbol ; it led the thirsty to a sure retreat and it also bade them seek in the ever-flowing bowl new courage and fresh hopes, however scorching the summer heat might be, however severe the winter frosts. For a long time, both on the Continent and in England, roadside hostelries indicated the nature of their trade only by the " bush " which they hung over their door, and there are still some inns in existence which do not possess any other sign. In towns and cities, however, where inns and taverns were numerous and in close proximity, competition made it necessary to attract

patrons and to enable them to recognise easily their favourite haunts by adding to the " bush " some other sign, both striking and distinctive. Such signs were not mere boards upon which a more or less gifted artist had painted some subject of his own ; most mediæval sign-boards were a profession of faith publicly made by the innkeeper who desired to do homage to some exalted personage whose patronage was deemed valuable. Those who placed their trust not in the lords of the earth appealed for protection to the heavenly hosts—hence the many " Angel " sign-boards—or to their representatives on earth—hence the " Pope's Head," " Cross Keys," " Cardinal's Hat," " Mitre," etc. A large number of innkeepers, however, believed that they were giving to Cæsar that which belonged to Cæsar when they put up the " head " or the " arms " of their Sovereign Lord the King, or one of the royal attributes such as the " Crown," or the " Sceptre." Many publicans chose as a sign the arms, badges, or crests of the noble lord whose residence was near their inn, in the hope of

gaining thereby the patronage of his many retainers and partisans. Thus, when Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, elected as his town residence the palace of St. Laurence Pountney, " Rose " taverns blossomed out in the neighbourhood. The rose was also the emblem of the royal houses of York and Lancaster, hence its great popularity as a sign. Harts, lions, bulls, horses, and dragons of improbable shades, as well as magpies, crosses, and crescents, all have some heraldic origin. In many cases, however, the innkeepers being totally unacquainted with the proper heraldic parlance, noble " lion gules " became " Red Lion " in the vernacular of the sign-board, and others suffered still greater loss of dignity ; thus the " leopards argent " of the Dorset coat-of-arms were hung over the tavern door as mere cats. There were also many publicans, more practical than imaginative, who simply chose a sign indicating the class of goods they sold, such as the " Vine," the " Grapes," the " Hop Pole," the " Tun," etc., whilst others adopted as a sign the arms or badge of the class of customers they par-

ticularly wished to attract to their house; thus, he who wished for the patronage of soldiers would hang two crossed swords or Marlborough's "head" as a sign, whilst another, whose tavern stood near the wharf or quay, would depict on his sign-board a ship, an anchor, or the "head" of some famous naval hero.

Great as are the number and the variety of sign-boards, there never was one which mocked and deceived the public half so much as the motto written over all public buildings by the French Republic: "Liberté, Egalité, Fraternité." Cruel irony! The different orders of society have never been farther from one another nor has class hatred ever been so general as it is now, and one cannot ride in any public conveyance nor even walk in the streets or parks without being constantly faced with prohibitions of all kinds and the threat of all sorts of penalties. We have gained some liberties, it is true, but we have lost others, and the balance remains practically unchanged. We are now free not to work, but we are no longer free to work;

no master is free to break a contract he has entered upon with his men, but the men are at liberty to break any contract they have signed. We have abolished slavery abroad, but we have set up trade union tyranny at home. Have we really gained more than we have lost ? The sugar-cane planter who lived amongst his slaves and made them work on the land saw that they were fed, they and their children ; he had privileges and he perchance abused them, but he also had responsibilities and he seldom shirked them. Was he a worse type of humanity than the owners or past owners of some of our largest commercial undertakings who owe their immense wealth to sweated labour ? The slave-master knew his slaves and his slaves knew him, and, in any case, they never were left to starve ; but the modern commercial magnate ignores entirely the poor brave things whose starving wage has built his own fortune. Have we not really lost more than we have gained ? Opinions may vary on this subject, but one thing is quite certain : Rum is no longer what it was in the good old days of coon songs and merry slaves.

The sugar-cane is a kind of stout reed which grows to greater perfection in the warm and moist climate of the West Indies than anywhere else. There are many varieties of sugar-canes and all possess their own characteristics, but, on an average, about 72 per cent. of their weight is water, 16½ per cent. saccharose, and 9½ per cent. cellulose. Saccharose is what chemists call C_{12} H_{22} O_{11}, a carbohydrate, just like ethyl alcohol, which chemists call C_2 H_6 O ; the difference between the two lies in the quantity and proportion of the three bodies of which both are composed and, needless to say, the difference is most important.

When the sugar-canes are ripe they are cut close to the ground ; they are shorn of their leaves which are excellent cattle food, and the bare canes are thrown into a pit from which they are picked up by an endless chain furnished with hooks ; this chain brings up the canes to the crushing mill, composed of successive pairs of rollers through which the canes are forced, with the result that all their sweet juice runs into a tub placed on a lower

plane to receive it, whilst the bark and woody substance of the cane itself is shot out elsewhere and used as fuel later on. In former days, when labour was cheap, Rum was the spirit obtained from the fermented sugar-cane juice placed in some earthenware pot and slowly distilled over a bark or wood fire. Such a process was distinctly wasteful, but its results must have been excellent. There still is a certain quantity of real Rum made in the West Indies—that is to say, distilled sugar-cane juice—but it is consumed locally; it has now ceased to be a commercial article. What we call Rum now, in Europe, is known as "tafia" in the sugar-cane growing countries; it is a spirit distilled from molasses. After the canes have been crushed and their juice separated from the wood, the juice is treated with sulphur dioxide and neutralised with lime to prevent fermentation; it is then heated, skimmed and evaporated either in open or vacuum pans, or else in mechanical evaporators with the help of steam pipes. According to the process used, the product may contain uncrystallisable syrup which is

removed by draining or in centrifugal machines; or it may be solid enough to pack for export and refining without requiring further treatment. In one or the other of these ways the bulk of the sugar originally contained in the cane-juice is extracted and it only remains to wash it, filter it, purify it, and refine it to the desired degree. But, at the different stages of crystallising the sugar of the cane-juice, there are sundry impurities and by-products which are eliminated, and they remain in an uncrystallisable syrup, a thick, sticky, dark-brown semi-liquid which contains both cane-sugar and invert sugar; this sweet residue is called molasses. Molasses usually contain from 55 to 65 per cent. of sugar which fermentation transforms into alcohol. When molasses are fermented they produce a mash or alcoholic liquid which is distilled, and the result is a spirit locally known as tafia, but which we know in Europe under the name of Rum. Rum is quite white when it leaves the still, like all spirits, but it is coloured with some burnt sugar, or caramel, and the longer it is left in cask the darker it

becomes, as it draws from the oak-staves of the cask a certain proportion of the colouring matter contained therein. The best Rum comes from Jamaica, but excellent Rum is also distilled at Demerara, Martinique, and in most of the West Indies, whilst Mauritius, Madagascar and all sugar-cane growing countries also produce Rum. Rum is more satisfying, more comforting, and possesses a greater food value than any other spirit; this is due to the fact that it is usually distilled at a lower strength than most spirits, so that it contains less proof spirit per volume but more "impurities" or by-products of the alcoholic mash from which it is distilled. It is to these "impurities" that Rum owes its distinctive characteristics, and as they are all primarily derived from sugar-cane juice they are wholesome and nourishing. This is the reason why Rum is so excellent at sea, and why it has long been and still is the staple spirit of the Royal Navy. Strange as it may seem and distasteful as it must certainly be to Mr. Leif Jones and other fanatics, the Government still buys on an average three

thousand puncheons of the cheapest Rum produced in any of the British West Indies. Each puncheon contains about one hundred gallons of Rum at the strength of 40 degrees over proof, costing a little less than £10 per puncheon, so that, when the spirit has been broken down with water to drinking strength, Admiralty Rum costs less than beer. Rum is to the sailor what the sea is to his ship; dry dock ordeals are beneficial to both occasionally, but they put them momentarily out of action. Sailors are not permitted to follow Mahomed's precept: "No wine and more wives"; and they have not yet shown much enthusiasm for Mr. Rowntree's advice: "No rum and more cocoa"; they still drink Rum to the tune of tens of thousands of gallons every year, and they are apparently very little concerned by the fact that, for the same sum of money, they all could be given chest protectors and the last but one edition of the "Encyclopædia Britannica" in half-roan binding.

XIV : GIN

IT was only during the seventeenth century that drunkenness, a sin as old as humanity itself, first developed into the vice of alcoholism, which has baffled three centuries of strenuous but often misguided efforts to eradicate it. Intoxication is but the chance result of drunkenness, whilst it is the aim as well as the result of alcoholism ; the difference between drunkenness and alcoholism is very great, not only at the moralist's point of view, but also as regards the pathological effects of intoxication on the human body.

Excesses in drink were not unknown nor even of rare occurrence in England previous to the seventeenth century, but their convivial origin rendered them essentially of an intermittent and occasional character. These excesses, reprehensible as such, had little or no evil consequences. When men met at the hospitable board after the chase or on some

festive occasion, eating and drinking more than strict moderation demanded, they benefited by, more than they suffered from, occasionally flooding their system with wholesome freshly-brewed ale or new and unsophisticated wines; even if they happened momentarily to lose their usual gravity or to be noisily elevated, they felt all the better for it the next day, and they never experienced that accursed craving which urges the victim of alcoholism to new excesses.

Chronic intoxication and industrial drinking—that is, the drinking of alcohol as a necessary incentive to work—are the immediate causes of alcoholism—one of the greatest curses of modern times. The initial cause of all the trouble is usually said to be the introduction of spirits into England at the close of the sixteenth century; this happened to coincide with the break up of feudalism and the re-organisation of society on the capitalistic basis, which facilitated the introduction of alcoholism by removing restraining bonds and controls, whilst the formation of large towns and ever-growing

industrial centres helped to spread intemperance among the working classes. This is the view which most historians have held since Camden, and the evidence must be acknowledged to be overwhelming that the introduction of spirits into England was followed by a considerable increase of drunkenness. Although brandy had been known at an earlier date to the medical profession and the wealthy classes, who alone had the means to procure it, the taste for spirits among all orders of society may be said to have been rendered popular in England for the first time by the soldiery who returned, in 1585, from the campaigns in the Low Countries. The improvements which were introduced at that time into the art of distillation and, more particularly still, the commercial utilisation of grain in the making of spirits, made it possible to produce spirits at a cost which brought them within the reach of the common people, and their constant employment as a stimulant quickly became general. Early in the seventeenth century, alcoholism had already made con-

siderable strides, and it was beginning to pervade all classes of the commuuity, from parson to labourer. " If the minister bee a drunkard," wrote Dr. Hart, in 1633, " how shall he reprove this sinne in his parishioners ? or if hee doe, may they not reply : *Medice cura te ipsum*—Physitian heal thy selfe ! " The worthy doctor is also very indignant at people no longer being drunk by night only " *as was the custom,*" but " now people are come to that height of impudency, and have so steeled their foreheads against all shame, that they dare even in the sight of the sun ; yea, in the open view of the world ; yea, even before God and all his heavenly hosts of angels reele drunk up and down the streets ! "

Previous to the reign of Charles I, there does not appear to have existed any control over the manufacture of spirits in England. Everybody was then free—and many were encouraged by local municipal authorities—to distil spirits from whatever source they pleased and in whichever way they chose. This liberty was undoubtedly the cause of much unwholesome and even poisonous spirits

being distilled from sour wine-dregs and putrid beer-wash ; and such vile spirits being the only ones within the reach of the poorer classes, they were consumed by many who became a prey to the curse of alcoholism, and handed it down to their children and their children's children. The evil became so evident and so grave that Sir Theodore de Mayern, the King's physician, and Dr. Thomas Cademan, medical adviser to the Queen, made Charles I realise that some steps should be taken in order to prevent so far as possible the manufacture and sale of injurious spirits. The result of their timely intervention was the formation of the Distillers' Company, to which the monarch granted their first charter in 1638. In order to protect the public from unwholesome spirits, the Company issued regulations in 1639, when it was stated that : " No Afterworts or Wash (made by Brewers, etc.), called Bleu John, nor musty, unsavoury, or unwholesome tills, or dregs of beer or ale ; nor unwholesome or adulterated wines, or lees of wines ; nor unwholesome sugar waters ; musty, unsavoury, or unwholesome

returned beer or ale; nor rotten, corrupt, or unsavoury fruits, druggs, spices, herbs, seeds; nor any other ill-conditioned materials of what kind soever, shall henceforth be distilled, extracted, or drawn into small spirits, or low wines, or be any other ways used, directly or indirectly, by any of the Members of this Company or their successors at any time hereafter for ever."

Unfortunately, the regulations enacted by the Distillers' Company failed to ensure greater purity in English-made spirits, because the Company did not enjoy any of the trading monopolies which alone would have given it the means of exercising an effective control over the distilling industry of the country. On the other hand, Charles II, James II, and William III repeatedly encouraged the distillation of home grain in order to promote agriculture, allowing all Englishmen to distil spirits from English-grown wheat and barley. It was then that gin appeared on the scene. Gin was a great improvement upon the unwholesome spirits obtained hitherto from every kind of refuse;

it was a spirit distilled from home-grown grain and rectified or redistilled with juniper berries which gave it a distinctive and greatly appreciated flavour. The immediate popularity of gin was at first its undoing. The demand became so large and so many tried to profit thereby that deadly competition raged in all big towns between gin-distillers who were bent upon getting the largest share possible of public support, and, to this end, lowered their prices to such a level that they were quite unable to supply the right quality of spirits. The climax was reached when, in 1786, a gin-shop newly-opened in Southwark, put up as its sign: "Drunk for 1d., Dead Drunk for 2d., Clean Straw for nothing." To be correct, "Drunk" should have been replaced by "Drugged," for the poor creatures did not drink to excess but were poisoned by the noxious spirits they were given Sudden deaths in gin-shops were frequent, and the scandal became so great that the Government of the day was at last moved into action. A law was passed, in 1736, laying a heavy tax on gin and prohibiting its

sale in small quantities. This law, known as the Gin Act, did but little good; on the one hand, it brought into existence a host of common informers who became the curse of the land, whilst, on the other hand, the provisions of the Act were evaded in every possible manner and without much difficulty.

Ever since the eighteenth century, when notable improvements were first introduced, the art of distilling gin has made such progress that it may rightly be said to have been brought nearer to perfection than the distillation of any other spirits. Of all potable spirits gin is the purest, that is to say, the most highly rectified and the one which contains by far the smallest quantity of the impurities and by-products of the grain it is distilled from.

Holland is the country where the largest quantity of gin is distilled and where the greatest consumption of this spirit takes place. England is second in importance, and some of the gin distilleries of London and Plymouth date back to the eighteenth century and distil some of the finest gin made.

There are notable differences between the gin of various distilleries, and this is due to the fact that this spirit is not always sold to the public at the same strength ; that some is sweetened with sugar; and that some is sometimes flavoured with coriander, cinnamon, angelica, or other aromatical substances.

XV : PUNCH

LONDON may rightly claim to possess a greater number of sumptuous hotels and gorgeous clubs than either Paris or Buenos Aires, or any other city on earth. The appointments of such resorts are magnificent ; from the hall porter on the steps outside, to the vieux-rose carpets, ormolu furniture, Crown Derby coffee-cups, dainty fare and choice wines ; any one of the first-class London hotels leaves nothing to be desired as regards comfort, ease and luxury. All the big clubs, too, provide their members with palatial accommodation at comparatively very small expense. Both in clubs and hotels the food and the furniture, the drink and the service are above reproach, and both in clubs and hotels the company is by far the worst feature of the establishment.

The " nut " who smokes his cigarette off and on throughout dinner and the millionaire

who started life hawking fish in the streets of a German sea-port before he emigrated to Chicago are types of humanity which are by no means new. It may be that the number of objectionable people in the world, the men without manners and the men without brains, are not more numerous now than in the past, but it cannot be denied that there is to-day a far greater number of men who are possessed of means than there ever was before, and their money is the key which allows so many more people to enter upon the stage of life where a strong and merciless limelight shows up their shortcomings. It may be a sad thing to relate, it may sound uncharitable and unfair, but it is nevertheless true that if one enters any one of the most fashionable hotels or clubs at the dinner hour and surveys the company assembled, the verdict must be that there are many people in the room the acquaintance of whom one is not anxious to make, and very few whose friendship one would wish for.

At the close of the seventeenth century and during the reign of Queen Anne, London

was not graced by such noble piles as the Ritz, the Savoy, or the Automobile Club; there were only taverns—taverns of very small dimensions compared with even the more modest restaurants of to-day. On the other hand, the old-fashioned taverns were far more exclusive than any of our public places; most of them were the rendezvous of people having the same views, the same tastes, or some common bond of personal sympathy. For instance, while the poets and the wits met at Wills', in Covent Garden, men about town gossiped at the Grecian, in Devereux Court, and the gay and young "sparks" dined at Locket's or Pontack's, which were noted houses for the excellence of their *cuisine* and their wines. The Pall Mall taverns were frequented by people of "prime quality who lived in St. James's Square and the adjoining streets." The Whigs met at the St. James's, the last house but one at the bottom of St. James's Street; the Tories congregated at Ozinda's, close by, and the Jacobites schemed at the "Cocoa Tree," on the south side of Pall Mall. At the corner of Bow Street and

Russell Street, Wills' became, under the patronage of Dryden, the headquarters of the literary men of the day, whilst Addison made the fortune of Button's Coffee House in Russell Street. Military men met at Young Man's; Scotchmen at the British or at Forrest's; lawyers at Nando's or at Dick's, near the Temple; churchmen at Child's, in St. Paul's Churchyard; stockjobbers at Old Man's; merchants at Garraway's or Jonathan's; Frenchmen at Giles's or Old Slaughter's, in St. Martin's Lane; doctors at Batson's, by the Royal Exchange, etc.

Our tolerance is admirable in many ways, but it could no more have been comprehended by the men of Marlborough's epoch than we can realise their exclusiveness. They could certainly never have appreciated our many acquaintances, so convenient even if they are so superficial; but we very seldom, if ever, meet with such friendships as they enjoyed.

The spirit of partisanship which characterised the greater part of the eighteenth century was carried to such an extent that it even affected the taste or fashion of men who

frequented the taverns. Whilst the Tories drank wine and the most expensive vintages of France, the Whigs were the first to introduce punch, and it was for many years eminently and primarily a Whig drink. It was so universally recognised as such that many taverners, both in town and country, who wished to attract Whig customers to their tavern, put up the " Punchbowl " as their sign, either alone or in addition to their older sign, with the result that, in some cases, the " Punchbowl " is still found to this day on some tavern signboards, combined with the most heterogeneous objects. There are, for instance, or there were until lately, a " Crown and Punchbowl " at Somersham, St. Ives ; a " Magpie and Punchbowl " in Bishopsgate ; a " Rose and Punchbowl " in Stepney; a " Ship and Punchbowl " at Wapping ; a " Red Lion and Punchbowl " in St. John's Street, Clerkenwell ; a " Union Union Jack and Punchbowl " in High Street, Wapping ; a " Dog and Punchbowl " at Lymm, Warrington, Cheshire ; a " Half-Moon and Punchbowl " in Buckle Street, White-

chapel; a "Parrot and Punchbowl" at Aldringham, Suffolk; a "Fox and Punchbowl" at Old Windsor; and a "Punchbowl and Ladle," near Truro.

Ned Ward, the notorious vintner, whose punch was perchance better than his doggerel poetry, kept a punch-house close to Gray's Inn, in Fulwood's Rents, Holborn, from about 1699 until his death in 1732. Anticipating the policy still adhered to by some Soho restaurateurs who serve eighteenpenny luncheons in the hope of attracting wine-bibbers, Ned Ward used to give away roast beef to his customers. Ward's sign was the "King's Head," and another well-known punch-house of the same period was the "Queen's Head," at St. Katherine's, kept by one Collison.

Punch hails from the West Indies, and its basis is rum. When the English took Jamaica from Spain, in 1655, they found that the panacea for all ills, the water of life, was the distilled juice of the sugar cane, an imperfectly rectified spirit which they called rum. The sailors appear to have taken kindly to rum from the beginning, and it is probable

that they drank it at first very much in the same way as Punch is still drunk to-day in the West Indies, viz., cold rum and water with sugar and some rind of lime. Such a mixture forms a delicious beverage, cooling, refreshing, and at the same time sustaining. There is every reason to believe, however, that when the sailors of old returned home with some of the precious rum, their instinct led them to drink Punch hot instead of cold, and some hardened sinner may possibly have reduced the proportion of water to a negligible quantity. There is no doubt, in any case, that Punch was from the first a hot drink in England, that its basis was rum, and that the other ingredients, whether they be water, green tea, lemons, oranges, nutmeg, or other spices calculated to keep cold out and to prolong one's thirst, were always left to the discretion or indiscretion of the holder of the ladle, whose duty and pleasure it was to mix the Punch and dispense it.

Punch was at first a Whig drink, and the Tories despised what they called hot water with sugar, good enough for a Whig or an

old woman, but never to be the drink of a gentleman. They were quite wrong; Punch outlived both Whigs and Tories, and reigned supreme in tavern and hall long after the quarrels of Jacobites and Orangemen had been forgotten. The reason was that Punch became a Whig drink only by accident, whilst it deserved and was to enjoy universal favour.

Of all the beverages the human race is heir to, Punch is the most sociable of all. As the late Lord Pembroke once said to his guests: "There, gentlemen, is my champagne, my claret, etc. I am no great judge, and I give you these on the authority of my wine merchant; but I can answer for my *Port*, for I made it myself." The host not only makes Punch himself, but he makes it above board, in front of all the company assembled and expectant; the quantity of each ingredient to be put in, the advisability of adding or leaving out such or such spices, the proper heat to drink Punch at, all and every detail is discussed round the table; reminiscences flow as the glasses are refilled, tales of great deeds in the past are told, and hopes of great

things in the future are raised; the sordid cares of every day are for the nonce forgotten; the petty worries of life fade into insignificance; the careful and grasping mind unbends, and the heart is set free; straight, honest, true words are spoken, and the friend knows his friend. Shades of Mr. Pickwick! Where are the men to-day who can trust themselves and trust their friends sufficiently to meet round the punchbowl and enjoy each other's conversation and company? Where are the men to-day who know how to talk or ever attempt to think except it be talk and thought of themselves, of their score on the links, their speed on the road, their luck on the racecourse? They are no more, and with them the punchbowl has passed away.

There is a species of Punch which one is given occasionally, particularly at City dinners; it is milk Punch, a concoction of milk and rum with sundry spices and herbs, properly clarified and happily blended so as to form quite an agreeable drink to follow turtle soup. There is also Swedish Punch and other kinds of Punch imported in bottle

which may be drunk either cold or with hot water, but there never can be any real Punch but the Punch that one makes and ladles out to one's friends from the steaming punch-bowl.

XVI: LIQUEURS

THE poet, the artist, the politician, or whosoever possesses a vivid imagination may charm his fellow men more readily, but he never shall convince them more thoroughly than the logician, the mathematician, the statistician, or whosoever deals with figures and numbers. Listen to the pitiful tale of the old beggar woman, and although you may throw her a coin, you will smile at the absurdity of her impossible story, never dreaming of giving the poor creature the credit for having spoken the truth. And yet, a few minutes later, you will listen eagerly to your stockbroker's fairy-tales, and you will act upon his advice unhesitatingly, in spite of the fact that time after time you have bitterly regretted doing so. Such is the magic of figures, the force of logic!

Logic is a most excellent gift, but it can easily be abused or misused; unless it be

guided by common sense and sympathy, logic will lead to the narrowest bigotry, to the most heartless cruelty, and to truly stupendous absurdities. Nero and Robespierre were apostles of logic—of that inexorable logic which purposely ignores all purely emotional mental feelings. Mohammed also was an apostle of logic—of blind logic which knows not common sense. Man should not break the laws of Nature; and as the birds in the air, the fish in the sea, and the brutes on land drank no wine and did in no way restrict their rights and privileges of males, so did the law of Mohammed logically adhere to the law of Nature. Had such logic prevailed from the beginning of the world's history, we should never have known any of the fine arts and we should probably never have been civilised at all. If we carry logic into the logician's camp, may we not ask him why we should be content with drinking nought but the plain water which quenched the thirst of primitive man, unless we be prepared to return to the cave dwellings and to the diet of roots and raw flesh which also satisfied

him? For countless ages past, the inquisitive genius of man has imagined, and his restless activity has procured, ever fresh luxuries, which soon become necessaries as he becomes accustomed to them.

Thus, although Nature has given us two legs to move about within reasonable distance of the place where we were born and where we were meant to live, we have never ceased to try to gain speed and save fatigue, ever since there was a man bold enough to leap on a horse's back and one daring enough to venture on the sea, until our own time when the air, too, has been conquered.

Thus it is also that, although Nature has provided us with a supply of water more than adequate for our needs, we have never ceased to try and invent new beverages, being moved thereto by that incessant craving for greater material happiness, which is one of the mainsprings of human progress. In the making of wine—whether it be a perfectly natural wine such as claret, a sparkling wine such as champagne, or a fortified wine such as port—the art of man intervenes only to make the

best use possible of Nature's own gift, viz., the juice of the grape ; the colour, the aroma, and the taste of wine are due to the species of vines which yielded the grapes, to the soil upon which they grew, and to the climatic conditions which allowed the fruit to develop and ripen more or less perfectly. But, in the making of Liqueurs, man has a much wider field wherein to exercise his ingenuity ; he is at liberty to give to his Liqueurs practically any shade or colour he thinks best to attract the attention, raise the curiosity, and charm the eye ; he also has at his command all the fruits of the earth from which to extract an almost unlimited variety of aromas and flavours, wherewith to please the most fastidious taste and flatter the most jaded palate.

The first man who thought of making Liqueurs was he who first thought of adding honey and a few leaves of sage or mint to his sour wine or flat ale—and that must have happened at a very remote time of the world's history. In England, there appears to have been a marked liking for sweetened and aromatised wine from an early date, and

the greatest favourite of all cordials was that known as hippocras. The " Ressaite to make Ypocras," according to *Arnold's Chronicle*, was as follows : " For a galon and a pynt of red wyn, take synamon iii uncis, gynger dryed an unce, greynes and longe peper di unce, cloves and masys, a q'rt of an unce, spignard a quatir of an unce, sugar ii lb."

" Aqua composita " was also an old favourite, which was described, in 1527, in the ' Vertuose Book," as being made of strong wine without lees, to which were added spices, herbs and roots of different kinds. When the process of distillation became better understood and more generally practised in England, a great many more cordials and liqueurs were manufactured with spirit, aromatical plants, roots and seeds. In the " Jewell of Health," such concoctions are praised as " laudable, comfortable, commendable, and singular cordial wynes." in the making of which the use of borrage, endives, ginger, long pepper, sage, galingale, cloves, fennel, nutmeg, etc., is advocated. A few fifteenth century cordials were quite simple,

such as " Absinthe," which was made of dried leaves of wormwood in equal parts of Malmsey and of " burning water thrice distilled." Most of them, however, were as complicated as the wildest imagination could devise, and some of the ingredients used were only little less remarkable than the cures they were said to have effected. There were cordials which would bring him back to reason who was " wholly mad," whilst others restored the sight of blind folks, or prevented " evyl cogitations comming to minde," or else " strengtheneth any weake member of man's body." The most efficacious of all Liqueurs was that known as " Quintessence," which was said to restore old and feeble " evangelik " men to the strength of their youth, and to save men from death " except when struck by thunder." In the Sloane MS. 73 (*circa* 1460–70), the poor and feeble evangelic men, who had led a godly life and been spared thunderblast, are given instructions how to make " Quintessence " : " You shall pray a rich man who is your friend to lend you a good florin of Florence." Such is the

beginning, which reminds one of the " First catch your hare " of Mrs. Glasse's cookery book. Once the feeble old man had extracted the gold coin from his rich friend, all that remained for him to do was to get as much of the metal as he could in strong wine and spirit, and drink it when he felt weak !

The days of good old " evangelic " men are gone, and so are the rich friends who would lend golden coins to save the feeble and dying. All that was fantastic in the old methods of compounding cordials and distilling liqueurs has long since disappeared, and has been replaced by science, even as the chemist has replaced the alchemist of old.

The artist who wishes to paint an oil painting must have a suitable canvas or panel to paint upon ; he must have proper oil with which to mix and lay his paints ; he must have a sufficient variety of paints to choose from ; and, above all, he must know the rules of his art, and how to make the best possible use of his subject and of his materials. It is exactly the same with Liqueurs. The distiller is the artist, the spirit is his canvas, sugar is

his oil, and his paints are all the fruits, plants, herbs, roots and seeds. As the artist chooses the panel or the kind of canvas which is most suitable for his subject, so has the distiller to choose which is the most suitable spirit for the kind of Liqueur he wishes to make. His choice rests principally between five kinds of spirit, viz., brandy, whisky, gin, rum, and highly rectified or silent spirit. In any case, the spirit must not show through the picture; it is but the basis which allows the Liqueur to "stand," and to last without losing its attractive colour and flavour. Anyone may buy good canvas, good oil, and good paints, but it is not every one who can paint a good picture with these. Anyone may also buy good spirit, good sugar and good fruit, but the distiller shows his art and his individuality in the harmonious blending of differently flavoured fruits or herbs; this is why there are not two Liqueurs exactly alike, although they may be made with similar or even identical ingredients.

Curaçao, one of the oldest Liqueurs, is chiefly made of spirit, sugar and dried orange

peel, but there are a great many different varieties of curaçao, because there are many distillers who make this Liqueur and they each have their own method. Some use more sugar than others, some consider a certain kind of orange better than another, and some choose brandy, whilst others use grain spirit; so that even in the case of this one Liqueur there are many varieties, exhibiting notable differences of colour, sweetness, alcoholic strength and flavour.

It is the same with other Liqueurs. There are, for instance, a great many varieties of cherries, many different qualities of brandies and of whiskies, and many ways of distilling Liqueurs from cherries; cherry brandy, cherry whisky, kirsch, maraschino, noyau, are all primarily made from cherries, but they all are quite distinct, and in each category of these Liqueurs there are varying degrees of flavour, taste, strength, price and excellence.

Stone fruits, such as apricots, peaches, cherries and sloes, make very good Liqueurs, whilst blackberries and black currants (or *cassis*) also give excellent results. Mint is

of all herbs the most extensively used by distillers in the making of Liqueurs justly popular for their digestive properties. Whether it be called " Peppermint " or " Crême de Menthe," left white or coloured green, made with brandy or gin, the beneficial action of such liqueurs is due to the mint. Carraway seeds are known and used in medicine for their stimulant and carminative action ; they are largely used in the distillation of " Kümmel," whilst from the anise fruit, which is very aromatic and is a good stomachic, " Aniseed " and " Anisette " are distilled. These two Liqueurs are always sold without being coloured, whilst the majority of other liqueurs are coloured any shade the distiller thinks best. All liqueurs, whether they be distilled from cherries, mint, oranges or anything else, always are pure white when they leave the still, and the colouring matter, which may or may not be added later, is only meant to render them more attractive to the eye ; it neither alters nor affects in any way their taste or flavour.

There are more good, bad, and indifferent

Liqueurs distilled and pictures painted abroad than in England simply because there are more distillers and more artists abroad than in England.

The Médoc, the Côte d'Or, the Marne, the Moselle and the Rhine, the Douro valley and the Montilla district all produce wines which cannot be imitated anywhere in the world, but there is no such monopoly as regards Liqueurs. If grain spirit be necessary, it can be obtained in this country of good quality and at comparatively low cost; if brandy be preferable for certain Liqueurs there is nothing to prevent English distillers from importing good brandy, and it will mature in the moist atmosphere of the London Docks more rapidly and more evenly than at Cognac. Mint is grown at Mitcham and carraway in Essex of better quality than abroad, whilst oranges from Spain and spices from the East usually come to England before being re-exported to Holland or France. There is absolutely no reason, therefore, why English distillers should not successfully compete with the foreigner in the making of Liqueurs; they have all the

materials at their command, but they must have also the support of the public. Reynolds, Gainsborough, Romney, Lawrence, Turner, Constable, and others are there to prove that great artists may be born in England, and if there have not been more it is because the apathy of the English public has so often failed to give the artist the encouragement and proper appreciation which alone can fan the spark of genius into a great flaming fire.

XVI: BEER

ONCE upon a time there was a rich vicar who had a fine orchard and more ruddy apples than he could ever eat; and there was a little Welsh boy, a hungry and thirsty little boy, who had no apples, and who thought that the vicar would never miss one or two. The little boy's name was David, and the temptation was too great for him; he climbed over the vicar's garden fence, and he saw in the grass one nice big apple which had fallen down; it was bruised and would soon rot, so David thought that he would not really be doing the rich vicar any wrong if he picked up and ate such an apple as this. For little David was no common thief, but he did not like waste, and he was always ready to come to the assistance and to share the burden of him who was overloaded with this world's goods. David had no wish, however, to argue the point

with the rich vicar nor with any of the rich vicar's dogs; he quickly picked up the apple and—more quickly still—climbed back over the fence. But the fence had sharp spikes, and faithful spikes they were; one tried to stop little David, but only succeeded in tearing a large hole in the seat of his small trousers. That night, David came home as late as he dared and full of fearful forebodings; he knew what to expect, and his expectations were only too well realised. He had a ready wit, a vivid imagination, and a glib tongue, but no tale of his could explain away the disfigured garment, and he could not keep his back to the wall all the time. That night, little David had a caning and was sent to bed supperless; he felt very small and very unhappy and he also felt that he had been treated very cruelly; but he soon fell off to sleep and dreamt that the rich vicar was lying in the grass, gagged and bound, and that he, David, was sitting on his chest eating lots of apples and sticking their pips up the vicar's nose. And whilst little David was dreaming sweet dreams his fond mother

was mending his little pair of trousers. They were but small, and they had but two very small pockets, but out of those pockets came a great variety of small boy's treasures. There were bits of rags and pieces of string, pheasants' feathers, chestnuts, stones and earth, and dried cow's dung, and a beer-bottle stopper. Great was the wonder of little David's mother ; and as she busily plied her needle she, too, dreamt of little David one day pulling all the strings, crippling the powerful brewers, grabbing the land and the unearned increment upon it. Dreams are but fancies, but little boys' pockets are marvels, and there is not a young mother who has not marvelled at the quantity of small objects of all sorts which a small boy can manage to stow away in his pockets. And yet how far more marvellous, if we only thought of it, is the way Nature fills a mere grain of barley. There is within a grain of barley that which will grow into roots and stem under the slight provocation of gentle heat and moisture, and there is that life-principle which will cause the plant to bear

an abundance of grain with the help of only a little moisture at the roots and some sunshine above.

Barley grows easily and rapidly in all but arctic climates, and it is extensively cultivated all over the world. The culture of barley is not only universal but also of the greatest antiquity; it has been and still is used in the making of Beer amongst all nations from the remotest times until the present day. The Jews of the Ancient Testament and the Egyptians of the earliest dynasties drank Beer made from barley, as well as wine, whilst Normans, Angles, Teutons, Saxons, and all the nations of northern Europe drank nothing but Beer until that stage of civilisation was reached which rendered communications possible with the more favoured lands of the south where wine could be procured.

Barley water and hops are all that is absolutely essential to make Beer, but the barley cannot be used in its natural state; it must be transformed into malt.

To obtain malt, barley is first of all soaked in water, then spread on a large floor at a

depth which varies with the temperature prevailing at the time; being thus spread, it is allowed to " heat " and germinate, being turned over with wooden shovels once or twice a day. After about fourteen days, the germinating grain is dried in a drying kiln, and " cured " to the desired degree. The grain is then " screened," and all the little rootlets which have grown out of it, being dry, fall off. There are different kinds of barley and various methods and degrees of malting, so that there are a great many varieties of malts, and the " palate," colour, and quality of the Beer depend, in the first instance, upon the taste, colour, and quality of the malt used.

When the brewer has selected a suitable malt for the style of Beer he wishes to brew, he crushes it in a mill, and, when crushed, the malt becomes " grist." This grist is then mixed with hot water in large copper tubs, called mash tuns, which are fitted with a perforated false bottom, and it then forms the " mash " or " goods." The first water which runs through makes a very strong

infusion of malt, but water is added over the " goods " by means of perforated revolving arms which spray a continuous shower of water of the right temperature; this hot water runs through the malt and is collected into a copper placed for the purpose on a lower plane. A little water on much tea will make very strong tea, but the more hot water is poured over the same leaves the weaker will the tea become until such time as all the flavour will have been extracted from the leaves. In the same way, the more water there is added to the mash the weaker will the malt infusion be. The water which has run through the mash is called malt water, or " wort "; its aroma and colour depend chiefly upon the kind of malt used in the mash, but its chemical composition, strength, taste, and general excellence depend even more upon the quantity, nature, and temperature of the water used for " mashing." The same barley malted by the same maltster might be used in London and at Burton, but the Beer brewed in one place would materially differ from that which had been brewed at

the other on account of the marked differences in the water supply. The Burton water is obtained from marls and sandstones underlying that district; it is very hard and slightly saline, and gives the best possible results in the brewing of light Beers, whilst the London water is entirely different, and gives better results in the brewing of dark or black Beers.

The raw barley, the malt obtained from it, and the water used in "mashing" are all-important factors in brewing. Once the "wort" is obtained, it is boiled in a large copper with hops. The use of hops in brewing is comparatively modern; it has not been general in England for more than three hundred years, but it is indispensable to the making of Beer. Hops not only impart a particularly pleasant bitter flavour and a peculiarly attractive aroma, but they also help to preserve the finished Beer. After the "wort" has been boiled with the hops, it is run through a refrigerator and it is then Beer, with all the constituents of beer, alcohol excepted. It is then run into fermenting

vats, a little yeast is added to it, and it very soon begins to ferment, alcohol and carbonic gas being formed at the expense of the natural sugar it contains. The fermentation lasts, on an average, six days, after which the Beer has only to be racked into casks, and, in due course, it is ready for consumption. In the case of bottled Beers, the old-fashioned way is to bottle the Beer from the vat and leave it to generate its own gas, but the chilling process is very extensively used nowadays. This process consists in racking the Beer from the vats into special casks, which are placed in a freezing chamber and left there for two or three weeks under two or three degrees of frost. The result is to turn the Beer quite thick and it is then mixed with carbonic acid gas under high pressure and forced through many sheets of filtering asbestos which retain all sediment and only allow a star-bright Beer to leave the filter. It is then immediately bottled and securely corked, and is ready for consumption. In certain districts, where the public taste demands it, Beers are more or less sweetened by

the addition of sugar ; such a practice is not reprehensible, since sugar, far from being in the least unwholesome, adds to the food value of Beer.

Statisticians tell us that the consumption of Beer in England is about fifteen gallons per annum per head of the population, and that we spend more than one hundred million sterling on beer every year. There are small-minded people who are, or pretend to be, horrified at such an expenditure, just as there are many blind men who must have been horrified when they were told that a Mr. Widener, an American multi-millionaire, bought Raphael's Cowper Madonna for £140,000 ; there are also many deaf persons who are unable to understand how people can be so mad as to spend thousands every year on grand opera, concerts, bands, and wind-bags generally. But, if we discouraged painting because the blind cannot see, if we abandoned music because the deaf cannot hear, and if we prohibited Beer because a small minority of the population is lacking in self-control, and must either be teetotallers or drunkards, we should re-

verse the order of Nature and set up as a motto the survival of the freaks instead of the survival of the fittest. When a squadron puts to sea, the speed of the whole is the speed of the slowest ship ; this is why obsolete vessels are scrapped or sold to Albania ; if they were left on the active list too long they would cripple the action of the more modern units. We cannot scrap our morally or physically defective brethren, but we place them in homes for incurables or asylums, in safe harbours or docks, so that they do not hamper the march of the sound units. The drunkard and the teetotaller are both mentally defective ; they lack the sense of proportion, and, happily, they are the exception ; the drunkard is blind and the teetotaller is deaf ; both are to be pitied, and we should avoid resembling either. It is usually the same men who find that the millions spent on Beer and the millions spent on the Navy are the most wicked waste of treasure, most of which could easily be saved and spent for the greater comfort of the working classes. But the millions spent on beer are practically

all spent by the working classes, and it is to be presumed that they would not spend their money on Beer if they could obtain more refreshing fruit from any other source; and it may also be asked, what greater comfort could be purchased with the money spent on the Navy than the comfort the working classes enjoy in drinking their Beer without fear or trembling, secure from the attacks of all foes oversea?

XVIII : CIDER

THE pleasure which the philatelist takes in sticking little squares of coloured paper in a stamp-album, the loving care which the entomologist displays when pinning ugly beetles in a cardboard box, the joy and emotion of the numismat who discovers a rare mint-mark on some defaced old coin in his cabinet, these are pleasures, cares, and emotions beyond the ken of the ignorant. There can never be any appreciation without knowledge, and whether it be moths, Greek coins, Sanscrit grammar, or analytical chemistry, there is nothing in the world which knowledge will not render passionately interesting, nothing the study of which will not prove fascinating. But, of all studies, there is none more fascinating, none which offers a greater field for research, none more highly interesting because it is more personal, than the study of the human

race. What biologists call "genetic continuity," and what we all know as "heredity," is a subject of all the more engrossing interest that we still have almost everything to learn about it. We know that, as a general rule, like begets like, but the exceptions to that rule are so numerous and so striking that we hesitate to call it a rule. Like a bark cast on a treacherous sea, tides and cross-currents now help us on our way and now carry us away from our course. Our inclinations, instincts, and mental faculties are the inheritance of untold generations past; we are swayed hither and thither by the spirit of those who have gone before us, and if temptation proves too great for us, we can find some excuse for our frailty in the legacy handed to us by our ancestors. But we all know that our first parents must have been entirely free from any taint of heredity; they were created in a state of perfection which we can hardly realise, and they had all they could possibly wish for. And yet they fell! But no ordinary temptation would have ruined their lives and spoilt our chances;

beautiful beyond description must have been the fruit which tempted our Mother Eve—more beautiful than any other fruit of the Garden of Eden. It was an apple! What other fruit has so ancient or so illustrious a pedigree as the apple? And what fruit is more universally grown all the world over than the apple? There are over fifteen hundred varieties of cultivated apples, from the crab apple to the coreless and seedless apple of Colorado. In Greek mythology the apple was the symbol of love because it was given by Dionysos to Aphrodite; in Scandinavian mythology, apples were the food of the *æsir* or gods; and in Teutonic mythology, the apple was the symbol of a mother's love.

The apple-tree will grow in all soils and in all but arctic or tropical climates. Many as are the different species of apple-trees, they may be roughly divided into three main categories according to the uses of the fruit they produce, either eating apples, cooking apples, or cider apples. Just as a fine dessert apple is insipid when cooked, and a cooking apple is tart before it is cooked, so also are

cider apples better suited to make cider than to eat either raw or cooked.

Cider is the fermented juice of the apple. It is a very wholesome beverage of great antiquity, and it is made to a large extent in different parts of England, but nowhere in such quantities nor to such perfection as in the West, in Herefordshire, Gloucestershire, Worcestershire, Devonshire, and Somerset.

The bad old way, in the good old days, was to fill a circular stone trough with apples, to which was added a little water—for preference, dirty stagnant water, which would give a " taste." Then a heavy stone wheel was slowly run over the apples and more apples were added until the whole trough was filled with apple juice and apple pulp. This was then pumped into a large vat, where it fermented for some days, after which the "Cider" was drawn into casks, and the remaining pulp was made into cakes, dried, and used as food to fatten pigs. Cider made in such a primitive fashion may be quite good, provided the apples are good. It was still made in that way a few years ago, and

may still be made like it now in out-of-the way farms of Normandy and Brittany. In England, Cider has long been made in a more scientific and less wasteful way. In the large cider factories, the apples are pressed by steam presses, and every particle of their sweet juice is extracted. The apples are brought to a crushing mill, where they are reduced to a kind of pulp, which is pressed in layers by means of steam-driven screws, and all the juice squeezed out of the pulp runs into a tank below. It is then drawn into casks, in which fermentation takes place, the sugar contained in the sweet juice of the apple being converted into alcohol and carbonic acid gas. In very good years and when none but the right sorts of apples are used, the juice contains more sugar than will be used up by fermentation to produce alcohol, and this excess of natural sugar makes the Cider taste sweet. In most years, however, all the sugar of the apple juice is transformed into alcohol, and the Cider is quite dry, but it may be sweetened at will to suit the taste of the consumer.

When Cider is allowed to ferment thoroughly in casks, all the carbonic acid gas which is generated by fermentation escapes and loses itself in the air ; when it is bottled, at a later date, it is quite still, and such is the condition in which most ciders are drunk. Sparkling Cider, however, is increasingly popular, and the manufacture of sparkling alcoholic beverages made from apples is quite an important industry in Germany. Cider is a most wholesome drink, particularly so in the spring and summer. It is cooling and refreshing, and contains neither the ethers of wine nor the essential oils of grain spirits. According to a medical treatise of the early seventeenth century, Cider " is best for hot and dry cholerick bodies, hot livers and melancholy persons." Needless to say, Cider may be drunk with impunity by " peaceful bodies " and " cheerful persons," and its use need not debar anyone from the pleasure and benefit of good wine. In Normandy, where Cider is made and drunk on a larger scale than anywhere else in Europe, everybody drinks Cider, but all those who can afford

it drink wine as well. Such a practice is no modern innovation, since we have a record of it as far back as the eighth century and in an eminently wine-producing district, i.e., in Burgundy. When people truly appreciate at its real value that most noble liquor, " wine," they do not drink it simply because they are thirsty. Even now, in many parts of France, the first wine one is given at dinner is a thin, immature wine, *pour la soif*. It has no merits of its own, but it quenches one's thirst and gives one the opportunity of slowly and appreciatively sipping the better wines which are to follow. One does not sip Cider; one drinks it in tumblers, and there is no better, no more wholesome, and no more certain means of quenching one's thirst. Taken in the morning, Cider acts as an excellent medicine—more natural and more effective than all powders and pills; taken during the heat of the day, it replaces the moisture we lose, and keeps the temperature of our blood cool; but the epicure will always refuse to insult his palate and tax his digestive organs by drinking Cider

with dainty and well-cooked food. A delicate but fairly acid white wine will taste like vinegar if drunk with cheese, just as a fine vintage port will be detestable if served after fish. A top hat and light brown boots shock our sense of propriety, but it is far more important that we should always insist on harmony between what we drink and what we eat. If we do, if our food and drink are properly suited to one another, they will do us much more good, and they will give us infinite pleasures, pleasures the charm of which shall ever be unknown to the ordinary man who eats and drinks with probably less moderation and certainly no more thought, no more intelligence, than the beasts of the fields.

XIX: WATER

LAND and water: such is the world we live in. Life began in water, and without the land many living creatures could thrive in water; but without water no form of life could subsist. Land owes its fertility as well as its beauty to water. The hurrying clouds and the slow ice-fields, the angry seas and the peaceful lakes, the silent glaciers and the thundering torrents, the majestic rivers and the chirping rivulets, the icy mist and the tropical rain, the gentle dew and the ruthless hail, all are nothing but the same water under different forms.

Fogs and sleet are forms of water which we should all be pleased to dispense with, but we cannot be too grateful to have been given by a bountiful Providence sea water to bathe in, tap water to wash in and to cook with, and mineral waters to drink.

There are millions of our poor suffering humanity who drink tap water and have very little chance of ever drinking anything better. There are also millions of toilers in mines and factories, glass-works and foundries, who breathe foul air at work and fouler air still at rest in their miserable hovels. But all of us who have the chance of doing so flee the over-populated centres whenever we can find the opportunity or the means, in order to inhale the invigorating ozone of the sea, forest, or moor. And yet, remarkable as it seems, there are many who have ample means to save themselves untold sufferings, prolong their life and enjoy it more fully by drinking suitable mineral waters instead of unwholesome tap water, but who never think of availing themselves of the marvellous variety of mineral waters which Nature provides in plenty for them!

In an article dealing with the relative merits of different waters, Dr. A. T. Schofield remarks: "The best water is fresh spring water. This, however, is a luxury that is rarer than good wine, and the bulk of the

population have no idea what such a water is like."

Water is a compound of two bodies, namely oxygen and hydrogen. All water, whether fresh and pure spring water, stale and impure tap water, or salt water, is derived from the rainfall. Rain water is distilled by Nature, and it is the purest water of all so long as it remains up above; but it gathers impurities on its journey to the earth, particularly so when falling over or in the vicinity of largely-populated areas. After rain has fallen on the earth, it passes through different kinds of soils, gathering up both organic and inorganic matters on its way. After being continuously filtered through the ground, water loses the organic matters it had carried with it at first, but, at the same time, the quantity of inorganic matters, such as sulphate and carbonate of lime, is increased. When such water eventually returns to the earth's surface at a spring, it contains varying proportions of different inorganic matter, such as bicarbonate of calcium (lime), on the presence of which depends the degree of

" hardness " of water. But when water flows from the spring into a rivulet, a municipal reservoir, a house-top tank, and a kitchen tap, it carries a mass of matter in solution and acquires untold millions of microbes, which are responsible for typhoid fever, diphtheria, and a greater number of diseases and ailments than we can possibly imagine.

Formerly, men lived and villages were built near a spring, where pure water was to be had, but only the more fortunate are now able to procure what has become an expensive luxury—a pure, clear, soft and limpid spring water, either entirely still or impregnated with natural carbonic acid gas. There are some people who are said to derive a certain benefit from drinking a moderate quantity of water, over and above the large amount we all unconsciously consume with our milk and wine, fish and flesh, fruit and vegetables, for there is nothing that we eat and nothing that we drink which does not contain a large proportion of water. But there comes a time when excess of work or of pleasure, a lack of prudence or of know-

ledge, a chance accident or any other cause may interfere with the proper working of that marvellous machine—the human body. Such a time has come for many whose life might have been saved or whose sufferings might have been lessened had they sought relief in water, instead of placing their faith in poisonous pills and medicines. Referring to our marvellous supply of mineral waters, Hartwig says : " How truly wonderful is the chain of processes which first raises vapours from the deep and eventually causes them to gush forth from the entrails of the earth, laden with blessings and enriched with treasures more inestimable than those the miners toil for."

Mineral water is rain water, which, after it has sunk into the ground, issues forth again after rising through various mineral masses and becoming impregnated with gaseous admixtures—saline or metallic—which impart to mineral waters their particular properties. Such waters bear different names, according to their predominant constituent ; thus muriated water contains

chiefly common salt ; alkaline water contains carbonate of sodium ; sulphated water contains Glauber's salts (sodium sulphate) or Epsom salts (magnesium sulphate) ; chalybeate water contains iron ; arsenical water contains arsenic ; sulphur water contains sulphuretted hydrogen, sodium, calcium, potassium, or magnesium ; calcareous water contains earthy substances ; thermal waters signify hot waters ; while selters water or seltzer contains chiefly carbonic acid, carbonate of soda and common salt.

Nearly every spring, however, contains a proportion of the characteristic ingredient of another group, so that no exact classification of mineral waters is possible, and the study of these waters and of their use demands considerable time and attention on the part of the medical practitioner. Unfortunately, it very seldom receives it in this country. This is all the more to be regretted, that there are a great many mineral springs in England which might be patronised with great advantage by people who go to foreign spas, if there were more doctors in this country

who took the trouble to really understand the action and uses of mineral waters.

Harrogate is said to possess no less than eighty wells, which cannot be equalled for variety and efficacy. At Llandrindod Wells and Woodhall Spa there are muriated waters similar to those of Homburg and Wiesbaden. At Cheltenham and Leamington there are sulphated waters somewhat similar to those of Carlsbad, Apenta, Hunyadijanos, Friedrichshall and Rubinat. At Harrogate, Llandrindod, Tunbridge Wells, and Buxton there are chalybeate waters and baths similar to those of Homburg and Rippoldsan. At Droitwich, there are saline springs such as at Salzungen, Ischl, Reichenshall, etc. At Harrogate, there are cold sulphur springs such as at Challes, Enghien, etc. At Malvern, there are purely thermal springs equal in every respect to those on the Continent.

One cannot help regretting that the enormous variety and the excellence of the mineral waters of England should not be taken greater advantage of than they are at present. The principal reason of this

undeserved neglect is undoubtedly the ignorance of the great majority of English medical men. One may regret, but one cannot wonder at the ignorance of the doctors as regards both wine and water, since the study of these subjects is most intricate, embracing an enormous field, requiring the most minute research, and yet it forms no part of the medical curriculum.

A few years ago, being in the north of Chile, I happened to be poisoned by bad food, and I suffered from severe intestinal trouble. On my return to London, I inquired and was given the name of a celebrated Harley Street specialist, whom I consulted, with the result that he straightway ordered me to drink nothing but water. It certainly was a blow, but I received it without flinching, and meekly asked: "What water do you think I ought to drink?" Without the slightest hesitation the great man answered: "Drink Vichy or Salutaris." This was another blow, but I stood it well, and quietly asked the illustrious professor which of these two waters was best for me, and he told me that there was practi-

cally no difference between them, and that I could drink whichever it was easier for me to procure. Then I forgot all the great cures and learned books which stood to the credit of the famous specialist, and I informed him that Salutaris water was plain water boiled and aerated, and not containing a particle of mineral matter, and that Vichy was the name of a French watering-place where a large number of mineral springs had existed since Roman times. I added that if he thought that I wanted a perfectly pure water, Salutaris was an excellent choice, but if I required a mineral water I must trouble him to name the spring he recommended at Vichy, as some produced sulphur water and others either muriated, alkaline, sulphated or chalybeate waters, and they could not all indifferently be good for me. I was then informed icily that a doctor does not argue with a patient, and I realised very vividly that there was one very good reason for it.

XX: THE CARE OF WINE

WINE and woman require at first firm, patient and intelligent training, but they cannot be expected to retain their charm nor to become more excellent unless we show our appreciation of their virtues and beauty; unless we bestow upon them the constant attention which they demand, the gentle care which they merit, and the loving regard to which they are entitled.

Much of the good wine and many of the fair women meant by Providence to gladden the heart of man have been irretrievably ruined by careless, rough or senseless handling. What is delicate requires delicate treatment: orchids are not plucked like weeds, nor is silk muslin sewn like sackcloth. There is nothing more delicate than fine wine, the living blood of the grape, and whether it be laid to rest or fetched from the cellar, it should

be treated in a very different way from mere coals which are shot down and shovelled up.

There are two categories of men: those who hoard money and those who spend it; specimens of each category are to be found upon every rung of the social ladder from the lowest to the highest; both avarice and jealousy embitter the lives of rich and poor alike and both are equally beyond the logic of arguments.

To give to wine the personal attention which it necessitates, and the grateful appreciation which it deserves, one should value it more than the money which serves to procure it; this is why wine is and shall ever be beyond the power of appreciation of the miser, of the mean and grasping man. Misers are, happily, in a minority; the majority of men will always be found ready to spend their own and other people's money willingly, not only nor even chiefly upon the strict necessaries of life, but also and largely upon luxuries.

The miser is sorely grieved at the extravagance of heedless multitudes; the philosopher

is neither surprised nor shocked by it, but he has to admit that, as a rule, man disregards the dictates of common sense and the laws of logic in his expenditure in pursuit of comfort and pleasures. Ask yourself whether you are getting value for money at bridge or when you go to the races. Does it benefit your mind, health or purse to the extent of the demands it makes upon your time, money and trouble ? Does it give pleasure or happiness to any of your friends ? Does it gain for you the love, respect or gratitude of anyone whom you love or respect ? If not, you are not getting value for money. How much greater and better will be the satisfaction which you will derive from a fine bottle of wine ! greater because it will be more lasting, stimulating your brain and quickening the beat of your heart, so that you will understand and feel more keenly than before ; and better too, because you will share your pleasure with others.

Your fine wine will not only flatter the sense of smell, delight the eye, charm the palate, but it will bid the heart forget past

offences and remember old friends; it will gently stimulate the brain and provoke the flow of kindly wit, quick repartee, fair and original expressions of opinion, all that makes the intercourse between friends so charming, so entertaining and so valuable.

Wine is well worth the money which needs be paid to procure it, but money alone cannot secure good wine; common sense, knowledge and care are necessary to buy, keep and serve wine.

Every year there is some good, some bad and much indifferent wine produced from the vineyards of the world. Every year there is also some good wine which is spoilt by ignorant or careless treatment.

To buy wine is one thing, and to drink it at its best is another.

HOW TO BUY WINE

No wine is good which is not sound.

Bad wine is never cheap. However exalted its pedigree and however low its cost wine which has never been or which has ceased to be sound is bad. Leave it alone.

Good wine will improve with age up to a point ; it will then decay and become unsound. Bad wine never improves with age ; it grows rapidly worse.

To buy well, you should first of all know what you want and buy what you want—not what your wine-merchant wants you to buy.

The best wines are the wines which suit you best.

Monotony dulls appreciation. Be catholic in your tastes. There is an almost unlimited variety of types and styles of wines for you to choose from. You do not eat the same food day after day, in winter and summer, in health and sickness. Discriminate and lay down in your cellar suitable wines for different times and occasions.

The majority of wines are drunk to greater perfection and with greater benefit during meals. It is alleged sometimes that it is bad for one to drink different wines at the same meal. This is not so. It is better not to mix grape and malt ; do not drink whisky after port nor port after whisky. But there

is no physiological reason why you should not eat fish, meat and fruit, nor drink Chablis, Claret and Port at the same meal. As a matter of fact, properly chosen wines are to a meal what music is to the dancers ; they are the best sauce for every sort of dish and help us materially to enjoy and digest our food.

Sherry, White Wines—still and sparkling —Red Wines—Clarets and Burgundies—and Port should form the basis of every self-respecting cellar. Study your cellar book ; know what you have in your cellar and what there was before ; this is the only way to know what to buy, when to buy and how much to buy.

Do not buy more than you want of any particular wine—even if it is a " bargain." Never buy wine as a speculation : it is not safe.

Cut your coat according to your cloth : buy Champagne last of all if you mean to be fair to the still wines which are less expensive but just as deserving of attention and appreciation. The present prices of Champagne

confine its use to two classes of people; the wealthy for whom it is a luxury within their means and the sick for whom it may be a necessity and of greater value than anything else that money can buy.

Buy at the right time and from the right people. Remember that the fish who troubles to seek his food in the rushes of the river-bed fares better than his brother who gobbles the wriggling worm held out to him in mid-stream at the end of a cruel hook. Beware of the tout and do not change your wine-merchant any more than your doctor.

Trust your wine-merchant or find another one who will be worthy of your trust. But train and trust your own judgment also. Train your eye, your palate, and your nose and trust them.

Good wine should be brilliant and pleasant to look at; brilliant and pleasant-looking wines are not all good, but dull, dead, dubious-looking wines are all bad.

Then bring to the tribunal of your nasal appendix the wine which has satisfied your critical eye. Smell it slowly and carefully.

Can you detect in it any trace of a musty flavour, of a chemical smell, of any sort of foul stink, however faint? If so, reject it. You need not trouble to taste it nor to enquire what its price may be. Have nothing to do with it. Do not have it as a gift. That wine is not sound; you need not trouble to find a name for that unpleasant "bouquet" and you must not listen to any argument, however plausible, of the would-be seller. Believe me: Leave it alone! But if you do not find anything objectionable in the smell of this wine, then let your nose return to it and once more inhale carefully. Can you not detect any bouquet? Perhaps not. Be not hasty and do not reject a wine which is lacking in bouquet. It may be quite a young wine, a cheap beverage claret which is before you, and a very sound wholesome wine. The "bouquet" or aroma of a wine is due to the "etherification" of its acids, a process which is slow and uncertain.

When both your senses of sight and smell are satisfied that the wine before you is sound, then taste it and decide whether you like it

and if you consider that it is fair value for the money demanded.

Always taste wine where you will have to drink it if you buy it. Climate and environments make no difference to the look of a wine, but they have a very considerable influence upon its actual taste. The light wine which was fetched for you from a cool cellar at some roadside inn in Italy, upon a scorching hot summer day, may have tasted more delicious than any wine you ever bought in England,but if you are wise you will go to Italy and drink that light wine there : you will not have any sent to your Hall in Yorkshire nor to your flat in London : if you do, you will be sorely disappointed ; it will not taste the same ; you will never be able to drink it and you will eventually present it to Chelsea Infirmary or some such concern the inmates of which will have no cause to thank you.

Truth is elusive ; so is good quality, but seek ever truth and strive after good quality. Be not hypnotised by vintage dates nor by great names, be they those of illustrious shippers or of even more illustrious Châteaux.

There are few well-succeeded vintage years when some individual vineyards or even districts did not produce poor quality wine ; they are the unfortunate exceptions which attend all rules. There are some years also, when the vintage is a failure in all but a few districts, or when a shipper happens to make up a Cuvée distinctly better—or the reverse—than usual.

Well-known shippers, well-known Châteaux, well-known wine-merchants all have a reputation to live up to ; trust them, but trust them intelligently, not blindly ; do not abdicate your own judgment. Shippers and merchants, however honest and experienced they may be, all make mistakes just as you and I have made and will make mistakes. There is no expert in the wine trade of any country who can tell with certainty what any new wine will become with age.

Wine is harmony, but young wine is like an orchestra at the tuning stage ; there are many brass and string instruments and much noise, but there will not be any harmony until they begin to play all together under

the greatest of all conductors " Father Time." The experts know the tune which is going to be played ; they know the number and the names of the instruments, but they do not know the artists and they cannot be sure of what their performance will be.

Taste often and critically ; try and remember ; make mistakes and find out where you went wrong. This is the best way to buy wine well.

HOW TO KEEP WINE

It is useless to buy good wine unless you treat it well. You must first of all provide for it a suitable home, i.e., a good cellar.

A good cellar is one where the temperature never varies at all, or, at any rate, never varies very much. It stands to reason that no wine can possibly improve with age if stored close to hot water pipes, as is the case in some of the most luxurious modern London hotels.

A cellar should be cool and well ventilated.

Whenever possible, white wines should be

kept in a cooler cellar than red wines or, at least, in the coolest part of the cellar.

What does the greatest harm to wine is to be lodged in a cellar which is cold in winter and hot in summer. An even temperature is what you should do your best to secure for all your wines. Whether you are able to do so or not depends upon the architect who built your house and it may be impossible for you to give your wines a home as cool and as even a temperature as they like and deserve. But you can and you must, at any rate, see that your cellar shall never be otherwise than faultlessly clean.

Whatever its shortcomings may be, there is no possible excuse for a cellar that is dirty.

Foul smells in a cellar taint the wine thereof.

Never keep vinegar in cask in your wine cellar.

When wine is delivered to your cellar, remove straw envelopes and paper wrappers and examine each bottle.

Reject all faulty bottles.

Never lay down a bottle of wine which

shows signs of ullage, that is to say the cork of which has allowed some of the wine to escape and the air to get in. You have every right to return all such bottles and to refuse to pay for them. If they are a gift, give them a little rest and drink them as soon as you can—and if you can. But do not bin away and forget ullaged wine; it will grow worse, " weep " and spoil the bin.

All wines should be binned in a horizontal position, so that the whole of the inside face of the cork be constantly in contact with the liquid, failing which the corks will shrink, some air will find its way into the bottle and the wine will be spoilt.

If you are so short of cellar space that you cannot bin away your Champagne or other cased wines as soon as you receive them, be careful to see that the cases are lying flat and not on their side, otherwise the bottles inside the case would be in a vertical instead of in a horizontal position; half of them would be neck downwards and safe, but the other half would be standing up and likely to grow flat after a little time.

When binning Port, see to it that the white " splash " on the bottles be always uppermost ; it will then be in exactly the same position as before it reached your cellar, and the crust, which is bound to be disturbed by the moving, will settle down much better into the old grooves which it has made for itself in the very metal of the bottle.

Watch your bins of wine. Be on the look-out for any " weepers " so as to remove them and use them quickly before they have become " ullages." Once the cork begins to allow the wine to ooze out of the bottle, it must be drawn and that bottle should be drunk. If a number of " weepers " occur in a bin, it is because the wine of that bin has been badly corked in the first instance and it may be wise to have it all recorked.

Watch your bins of wine. Be on the look-out for worm-eaten corks. You will never catch nor see the worm, but you will see its work ; it usually takes the form of a little beading of cork dust round the top of the cork. If you leave it alone, it will spread to the whole contents of your cellar and ruin

it. As soon as you discover worm-eaten corks in your cellar, report the fact to your wine-merchant and ask his advice. It will cost you nothing and save you a great deal of money and trouble.

HOW TO DECANT WINE

If you be a rich man, train a good butler to love good wine, grudge him not his share of your wines and let him decant them.

If you cannot afford to do this, decant your wines yourself.

When a red wine has been bottled some time, it throws a sediment, part of which adheres to the glass—some of it even ingrains itself into it—and part of which remains loose. The sediment of wine varies as regards both its volume and nature with every type of wine and also with every different vintage. There are wines the sediment of which, in certain years, forms such a firm "crust" that the whole liquid contents of the bottle will pass into the decanter and be star-bright right through. This is, unfortunately, quite

exceptional. As a rule, there is a certain quantity of sandy or slimy sediment lying loose along the length of the bottle and ready to mix itself up with the wine upon the slightest provocation. It is in order to avoid this mixing up of the sediment with the clear wine which has thrown it out after a slow travail of many years duration, that wine needs decanting with the utmost care.

Whenever possible, decant your old wine in the cellar, straight from the bin.

Take the bottle gently from the bin and lay it softly in a cradle.

Remove the metal cap or the wax protecting the outside face of the cork.

Wipe the upper lip of the bottle all round and thoroughly with a clean cloth.

Drive your corkscrew slowly right through the centre of the cork, and draw the cork steadily without any jerks, without any haste or hesitation.

If you are about to decant some very old wine, use " nippers " and take off the neck of the bottle. If you have never used

" nippers " before, ask your wine-merchant to show you the way, and then try your hand on a few bottles of " Vin Ordinaire " first of all.

Once the cork is drawn, wipe the inside lip of the bottle with a clean cloth, take hold of the bottle firmly in your right hand, and slowly pour its contents into a decanter held in your left hand.

Place a lighted candle or an electric bulb behind the shoulder of the bottle and watch the wine as it passes out of the neck of the bottle. As soon as you see some loose sediment come to the neck of the bottle, stand the bottle up. What wine may be left in the bottle is unfit for consumption; it is far better to lose a little wine and much sediment than to spoil a bottle of good wine with a little sediment.

HOW TO SERVE WINE

The temperature at which you will serve your fine wines is of great importance.

Avoid extremes: use neither fire nor ice: shocks are always bad for wine.

White wines should be served cold: they may be iced, but no ice should ever be put in the wine itself.

Red wines should be served at the temperature of the dining-room. They will be spoilt if warmed up quickly, either by being dipped in hot water or placed near the fire.

Decant old Claret one hour and old Port two hours before dinner; let them stand in the dining-room where they will take the temperature of the room.

Never serve fine wines—nor fine brandy—in small glasses. Use large glasses but never let them be filled to the brim. The subtle "bouquet" of a wine is its greatest charm, but you will never be able to appreciate it should your glass be too small or too full.

Fine glasses materially add to the enjoyment of fine wine; they enable one to appreciate its brilliant colour. Above all, it is absolutely indispensable that both decanters and glasses should be faultlessly clean. The cloth used to wipe and polish glasses should never be used for anything else; the finest

wine will be completely ruined if served in glasses which have been wiped with a dirty cloth.

HYPOTHETICAL CONTENTS OF AN IDEAL CELLAR OF WHICH A GENTLEMAN MIGHT BE JUSTLY PROUD.

The wines of the "ideal" cellar might be divided into three classes, viz.: A. *Past*, B. *Present*, and C. *Future*.

CLASS A.—A few bottles of past famous vintages laid down by the present owner's father or grandfather, for use on very special occasions.

CLASS B.—A fair quantity of wines ready for present consumption.

CLASS C.—Wines purchased for laying down and to be saved for future consumption.

I. CLARETS.

Red Wines.

A.	B	C.
Lafite 1864.	Margaux 1888.	Margaux 1899.
Haut-Brion 1871.	Cos d'Estournel 1893.	Ausone 1900.
Latour 1875.	Cheval Blanc 1893.	Latour 1900.
Mouton-Rothschild 1877.	Branaire Ducru 1899.	Pape Clément 1900.
Lafite 1878.	La Lagune 1899.	Haut Brion 1907.
	Petrus Pomerol 1905	

White Wines.

Chateau Yquem 1869.	Latour Blanche 1900.	Chateau Filhot 1904.

II. BURGUNDIES.

Red Wines.

Clos de Vougeot 1858.	Chambertin 1887.	Grand Chambertin 1915.
Romanée Conti 1877.	Romanée Conti 1891.	Romanée St. Vivant 1915.
Grand Musigny 1877.	Clos de Vougeot 1889.	Corton 1908.
Romanée Conti 1881.	Romanée Conti 1906.	Pommard 1911

White Wines.

Chablis La Moutonne 1893.	Montrachet 1908.	Montrachet 1915.
	Chablis Clos 1904.	Chablis La Moutonne 1911.

III. PORTS.

Vintage 1834.	Vintage 1875.	Vintage 1908.
„ 1847.	„ 1884.	„ 1912.
„ 1863.	„ 1887.	
„ 1868.	„ 1896.	
„ 1878.		

XXI: DRINK A PHYSIOLOGICAL NECESSITY

ALL foodstuffs contain a certain proportion of water which helps to replace the moisture we require and that which we lose daily by evaporation, perspiration, respiration and evacuation. But by far the greater part of the water required by the human organism is supplied by drink or various liquids which consist mostly or even solely of water.

Drink may be divided into two main classes; all liquids which do not contain any alcohol being placed in one, and all alcoholic beverages in another.

(*A*)-NON-ALCOHOLIC LIQUIDS

(1)—*Water.*

Of all non-alcoholic liquids, water is by far the most widely used. It has no nutritive value whatever and leaves the body as it

enters it; it has no oxidising action upon foodstuffs, but it may greatly interfere with digestion and somewhat accelerate it through physical action when we drink it in sufficiently large quantities and at extreme temperatures of heat or cold.

Pure spring water is beyond the reach, and distilled water beyond the means of most people. The impurity of the water we drink depends, as regards both degree and kind, upon the source from which it is obtained, the distance from which it has to be brought and the channels through which it reaches us.

Water contains, in greatly varying proportions, organic matters borrowed from the different rocks through which it has passed before reaching the surface again, and although none of the mineral salts nor other solid parts held in suspension in water have any nutritive value, they all have a more or less marked influence upon our digestive organs as well as others, such as the bladder, the liver, the kidneys and even the heart. This is particularly the case as regards

waters known as " Mineral " waters, many of which possess distinctive pharmaceutical properties.

Common or " tap " waters are chiefly distinguished by their degree of " hardness," or the proportion of bicarbonate of lime which they all contain, and their purity, or rather their impurity depends upon the number and variety of evil bacilli from which plain water is never free.

(2)—*Milk.*

Milk is of all liquids the most valuable as a food and the most suitable for the young. It contains proteins, fats and carbohydrates under an eminently digestible form, and sufficient to sustain life and build up tissues without the help of any other substance. The consumption of cow's milk is much greater than that of any other milk, and its quality varies according to the health, age, breed and feeding of different cows, but the following analysis gives a fair idea of the average cow's milk :—

	Milk not skimmed. per cent.	Skimmed Milk. per cent.
Proteins - - -	3·2	3·0
Fats - - -	3·6	0·8
Carbohydrates -	4·8	4·8
Salts - - -	0·7	0·7
Water - - -	87·3	90·3
Calories - - -	67	41

Milk, unfortunately, is a very suitable breeding-ground for the bacillus of tuberculosis and other evil microbes, besides which, it very soon deteriorates and becomes unfit for human consumption, which makes the problem of the suitable supply of sound, unadulterated milk a very difficult one in large towns which depend on outside sources for their supplies.

(3)—*Tea and Coffee.*

Tea and coffee have little nutritive value in themselves, but they are usually drunk hot, and with the addition of milk and sugar, both of which are valuable foods, besides which the hot water, which is invariably their chief component part, has a beneficial effect upon the circulation of the blood and digestion. But the chief characteristic of

both tea and coffee is the "cafein" which they contain, and the action of which upon our nervous system is sufficiently marked to be of real assistance in cases of fatigue or depression.

(4) *Cocoa.*

The food value of cocoa is considerable; it contains 15 per cent. of proteins, 50 per cent. of fats and 25 per cent. of carbohydrates, so that when milk and sugar are added to it, a cup of cocoa is a meal in itself, a fact which is not always sufficiently recognised by a number of people, particularly among the poorer classes, who drink cocoa whilst eating bread and cheese, thus loading their organism with a quantity of proteins and fats in excess of their requirements.

(*B*)—ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES.

Alcohol is the name of a class of neutral compounds of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen, capable of forming ethers with acids. This class comprises a great many members, some of which, far from being volatile, are not even

liquid. Cetyl alcohol, for instance, is a solid fat, whilst cerylic and myricylic alcohols are waxy. Glycerine, which is a trihydric or triatomic alcohol ($C_3H_8O_3$), fusel oil or amylic alcohol ($C_5H_{12}O$), methyl alcohol (CH_4O), propyl alcohol (C_3H_8O), butylic alcohol ($C_4H_{10}O$) and a great many more, all have an equal right to the name alcohol. But, by far the most important member of this large family is ethylic alcohol (C_2H_6O), a compound of two molecules of carbon, six of hydrogen and one of oxygen. In other words, ethylic alcohol has the same chemical composition as water with one of its hydrogen atoms replaced by a hydro-carbon radical composed of two atoms of carbon and five of hydrogen.

Scientifically speaking, the term alcohol should always be qualified, but, when used alone, it is understood to refer to ethylic alcohol, the principal stimulating agent of all alcoholic beverages.

The chemical composition of ethylic alcohol is beyond controversy, and there is absolutely nothing in the chemical composition

of ethylic alcohol which would entitle it to be called a poison or a narcotic ; it has none of the chemical characteristics of known poisons, and it does not possess any of their properties.

Alcohol is a nutrient and a nervine ; that is to say, a food with a specific action upon the nervous system.

Alcohol, like carbo-hydrates, such as sugar, creates heat and furnishes energy for muscular work.

Alcohol has a specific action upon the nervous system ; an action which leads to perfectly normal functional changes, and causes a certain inner mental stimulation.

That alcohol is almost entirely oxidised in the body, except when taken in very large quantities, has been proved by the most exhaustive scientific experiments. " The outcome of the best investigation on this subject may be summarised as follows," writes Professor W. O. Atwater. " The alcohol of ordinary beverages is easily absorbed from the stomach and the intestines into the circulation and readily burned. If the amount

taken is small, the oxidation is almost complete.

" When the quantity taken is excessive, the amount unconsumed is likely to be much larger. As the more experiments with alcohol have been more accurate, the proportion actually oxidised has appeared larger and larger. When taken in small quantities—say, one or two glasses of wine, or a glass of whisky, at a time—the alcohol has been found to be burned at least as completely as bread or meat. The reason for discussing at such length a theory discarded a quarter of a century ago by the leading authorities is that it has remained current in the writings of some authors, and even in some of our school text-books which deny the food value of alcohol."

The oxidation of alcohol in the body is a fact placed by science beyond all doubt, but it is far more difficult to ascertain the amount of heat and energy produced by the oxidation of alcohol, and, therefore, the actual food value of alcohol.

To compare the degree of nourishing power

of different foods, we must remember that the caloric or heat-power of different substances differ, that is to say that the heat and energy which will be produced by the oxidation of one ounce of butter, for instance, will differ from the heat and energy which the oxidation of one ounce of sugar will produce. Very exhaustive experiments were carried out by Professor Atwater and the "Committee of Fifty for the investigation of the liquor problem" which was appointed by the United States Government some few years ago, for the purpose of ascertaining the food value of alcohol. Pure ethylic alcohol, diluted in water or coffee, was used for these experiments, and it is claimed that when the quantity of fat, sugar and starch was reduced by what would produce 500 caloric units and replaced by a sufficient quantity of alcohol to furnish 500 caloric units, the work done and the energy given off from the body were practically the same. This proved that alcohol not only was oxidised in the body but also to the same good purpose as a similar heat-giving quantity of fat, sugar

and starch ; in other words, alcohol supplied the same energy to the body as fats and carbo-hydrates. Furthermore, it was proved in the most absolute manner that, when carbo-hydrates were replaced by alcohol, in the diet of the subject experimented upon, there was no need to increase the proportion of albumen included in the diet ; alcohol acted in exactly the same way as carbo-hydrates in saving the albumen stored in the body, an absolute proof of its being a nutrient.

The fact that alcohol is a food and is oxidised in the body like carbo-hydrates, such as sugar or starch, is only too often overlooked, and alcohol then becomes a danger. Corpulence, gout, dilatation or relaxation of the heart, and similar diseases, are more frequent amongst drinkers than abstainers, but it is scientifically wrong to blame alcohol for any such complaints ; they are solely due to over-nutrition, not to alcohol as such. People who eat as much proteids, fats and carbo-hydrates as they require, and even more than they require, and at the same time do not deny themselves the pleasure

and comfort of alcoholic beverages, should realise that by so doing they are taking more food in the shape of alcohol, and an excess of food which must perforcedly be injurious to the body. Alcoholic beverages should be taken in place of, and not in addition to, a certain amount of fats and carbo-hydrates; if the body is supplied with all the fats and carbo-hydrates required to produce the necessary heat and energy, alcohol will only cause fat deposits in organs in which fat cannot be used.

It might be said that, since alcohol takes the place of carbo-hydrates, carbo-hydrates could also take the place of alcohol, so that by increasing the proportion of fats or carbo-hydrates in one's diet, one might easily dispense with alcohol.

If alcohol were nothing but a food, this assumption would be quite correct, but it is absolutely incorrect, because alcohol is not only a food, but a food with a very marked specific action upon the nervous system. As a nutrient, alcohol can be replaced by carbo-hydrates, but as a nervine it has no sub-

stitute. Most people drink alcoholic beverages for the specific action these exercise upon the nervous system and the brain, but many fail to realise that alcohol also possesses a very real food value which is beneficial in itself but becomes a serious danger, as in the case of all foods, when taken in excess.

The Specific Action of Alcohol upon the Nervous System and the Brain.

Our nervous system is the most complicated part of our organism. It comprises a central nervous system, including the brain and spinal cord, and, leading from these, a network of nerves controlling all the organs and glands of the body.

We know that alcohol excites in a specific manner the sensory nerves of smell and taste, since we can easily detect its presence whenever we are either smelling or tasting it. We also know that alcohol has a marked action upon the secreting nerves of glands, which it causes to contract and discharge their cell contents, saliva in the mouth or gastric juices in the stomach. This is the result of per-

fectly normal functional changes which have nothing in common with disturbances. As soon as alcohol comes into contact with the mucous membrane of the stomach, a more abundant but perfectly normal secretion of gastric juices takes place as a result of the excitation or contraction of the nervous end-apparatus of the stomach.

To ascertain experimentally the action of alcohol upon the nervous system, and particularly so upon the brain or central nervous system, is, as yet, beyond the reach of science.

Professor Kraepelin and his pupils of the Heidelberg school have, it is true, investigated the action of alcohol on the mental processes. The methods they employed consisted chiefly in ascertaining the speed and character of various mental exercises, and then observing how far they are modified by the administration to the subject under examination of various doses of alcohol. The experiments were devised principally to estimate the acuteness of perception as shown, for instance, by the recognition of letters, syllables, or figures presented to the sight for very brief

periods; and to demonstrate the rapidity and accuracy displayed in such exercises as reading aloud, adding rows of figures, committing figures to memory, etc.

The inherent vice of all such experiments is that they are carried out under conditions which greatly differ from those of ordinary life. The subjects who are asked to produce certain mental efforts before, during or after being given to drink various doses of alcohol, are bound to be influenced to a large extent by the mere knowledge of what is expected of them. Besides, it is universally recognised that alcohol, like shellfish, milk, fruit, and all aliments, will affect different men differently, and also that any one man may be affected differently by the same quantity of alcohol, taken in the shape of either wine, beer, or spirits. It is quite easy to understand that a German compositor, for instance, who usually drinks German beer, is not likely to set up type at a quicker rate when treated by the experimenting professor to some "Greek wine" or to some German brandy distilled from potatoes and diluted in coffee; the

quantity of ethylic alcohol may be the same, but everything else is so different that whatever phenomenon may be observed as a result of the change of diet cannot scientifically be attributed to alcohol.

This is why Dr. W. C. Sullivan, Medical Officer in His Majesty's Prison Service, and one of the most conscientious temperance advocates of the present day, when dealing with the experimental methods applied to the study of the influence of alcohol upon the nervous system, wrote: " Of course, it will be readily understood that the conclusions to which this sort of evidence can lead are, for the most part, merely probable. The questions at issue are of such complexity that it is very difficult to devise experiments for their solution that will not be open to many and grave fallacies; the effects of slight differences in technique or of peculiarities in individual reaction are likely to show on an exaggerated scale, and hence to produce discordant results; and even when the results are agreed on, their interpretation will still depend upon physiological principles regard-

ing which the sharpest and most radical differences of opinion prevail."

Although it is not possible to gauge experimentally the action of alcohol upon the nervous system with any degree of scientific accuracy, it has been abundantly proved by medical experiments and every-day experience that alcohol has a marked specific action upon the creative faculties of the brain.

The human brain possesses both active and passive properties ; imagination, for instance, is one of the active or creative faculties, whilst memory is simply passive or receptive. The passive and active faculties of the brain are quite distinct. Many animals possess a receptive brain ; their sense of locality, their memory, and their instinct guide them ; but they are incapable of original thought, imaginative power, or high ideals. On the other hand, men of real genius, who have attained to great celebrity in the world of letters, arts, or politics, have been known to lack memory and the instinct of self-preservation which even the lower animals possess.

Alcohol has the very remarkable property of deadening to a certain extent the passive or receptive faculties of the brain, whilst exciting and stimulating, at the same time, its active or creative powers and the inner self or personal psychic ego of man.

Alcohol cannot supply brain power where there is none, nor make a selfish man unselfish or a fool clever. It will, however, bring into play, stimulate into action, and intensify the temperament and the qualities, good, bad, or indifferent, it may be one's good or bad fortune to possess.

Alcohol will help the poet, the artist, the orator, to forget the petty cares and troubles which may harass him; it will deaden the sense of self-consciousness and diffidence which drove him to sterile inaction, and, at the same time, it will stimulate his genius to greater activity. But alcohol will only cause the sanguine and brainless man to be jolly, the bilious fool to be irritable, and the phlegmatic dullard to be peacefully happy; it can never create sense where there is none. In other words, alcohol urges the gifted to remember

and use their gifts, and hides from the giftless the injustice of fate.

Dr. Charles Mercier, in his inaugural address on " Drunkenness and the Physiological Effect of Alcohol," delivered before the Midland Medical Association in November, 1912, expressed the same truths in a more scientific manner, when he said : " Alcohol has the power to unlock the store of energy that exists in the brain, and to render available, for immediate expenditure, energy that without its use would remain in store, unavailable for our immediate needs."

The Use and Abuse of Alcohol.

Ethylic alcohol is a food with a specific action upon the nervous system, and this fact not only justifies the use of alcoholic beverages, but it also explains scientifically why they have been used in all ages and amongst all civilised nations.

Excellent as the moderate use of alcohol is, its abuse cannot be too strongly deprecated. In all questions of diet, moderation is a golden rule, which can never be broken without

grave danger. All aliments become a source of danger—and will even become poison—above a certain dose. Daily excessive ingestion of any fluid must burden the heart, the blood vessels and the kidneys; whether the liquid ingested be water, milk or beer, the difference will be one of degree, not of kind; excessive drinking of water is bad, but excessive drinking of milk or beer is worse, because of their food value. What is known as the "beer-heart," for instance, is not the result of the action of alcohol, but of over-nutrition; it is the abnormal quantities of liquid, and not the small percentage of alcohol contained therein, which have overtaxed the functions of the heart and caused the fatty degenerescence of that organ.

It must be remembered that though they all contain a certain proportion of ethylic alcohol, all alcoholic beverages vary considerably on account of the different elements they are composed of, far more than on account of the more or less important quantity of ethylic alcohol they may contain. There might be, for instance, exactly the same

quantity of ethylic alcohol in a pint of light Moselle as in a glass of beer; in a pint of Claret as in a glass of Port; in two glasses of Champagne as in one glass of Whisky-and-soda; in a glass of Brandy as in a glass of Gin; but, in each case, different physiological results are likely to be obtained. Just as one man cannot eat beef but enjoys mutton, as another who cannot digest cabbage will eat celery with impunity, or as another for whom strawberries are a poison yet may eat pine-apple, so there are people whom beer suits better than wine or vice-versa; brandy may suit one man better than whisky, whilst the reverse happens to be the case with another. It is true that the chemical nature of the ethylic alcohol is identical in both wine and beer, but the many other elements of which wine and beer are composed are altogether different, and they cannot be equally suitable in all cases.

Ethylic alcohol is of considerable value to the economy of our organism, but it should never be abused nor taken in the shape of one or the other alcoholic beverages which

may not be suitable to individual temperaments or in particular cases. He who suffers from diabetes, for instance, must not blame alcohol if he finds that the sweet wine he drinks disagrees with him; let him take the same moderate quantity of alcohol in the shape of dry and somewhat acid wines, and he will find that they suit him admirably. Just as sugar is to be avoided in cases of diabetes or asparagus in kidney diseases, so should alcohol be avoided in all complaints when inflammation or fever occurs. But, with that exception, the number and variety of alcoholic beverages are so great, that in health and sickness, in youth and old age, bountiful Nature has provided for us a marvellously ordained range of wholesome stimulants to suit all different temperaments, tastes and circumstances.

Like most of God's best gifts, alcohol always has been, and still is, abused. The sin of drunkenness has been justly denounced in Holy Writ, as well as by all the philosophers of ancient Greece and Rome and by all moralists ever since. It was not, however,

until the last century that some men in this country revived Mohammed's heresy and preached the doctrine of total abstinence.

Amongst those who to-day share the new faith, there are men who have attained to such eminence in the medical profession that we are bound to ask ourselves how and why it is that such great intellects should have adopted views in utter contradiction to the universal experience of mankind and experimental science.

It is not science, it is not commonsense, it is not truth on which stands their faith in water; it is their charity, their pity for the poor deserted children of the drunkard, the hapless young wife of the dipsomaniac. They see the evils—evils which are real and great—which are due to the abuse of alcohol, and they are so much moved by the bodily and mental misery which they have personally known to be caused by such abuse, that they lose sight of the fact that the benefits accruing from the proper use of alcohol are far greater than the evils due to its abuse; they forget what they often owe themselves to the

moderate use of stimulants, and what the world, what their own country owes to alcohol. They forget that from Chaucer, the son of a royal butler, to Ruskin, the son and grandson of wine merchants, every poet, dramatist, artist and writer of genius, every great thinker, has been a wine drinker ; that every ruler, every thinker, who has ever merited his country's and, perchance, humanity's gratitude, all have used, and some have abused, that most noble gift of a divine Providence—Wine.

XXII : OFFICIAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE GROWTHS OF THE MEDOC

First Growths.

Lafite	Pauillac.
Margaux	Margaux.
Latour	Pauillac.
Haut-Brion	Pessac (*Graves*).

Second Growths.

Mouton-Rothschild	Pauillac.
Rauzan-Ségla	Margaux.
Rauzan-Gassies	„
Léoville-Lascases	St Julien
Léoville-Poyferré	„
Léoville-Barton	„
Durfort-Vivens	Margaux.
Lascombes	„
Gruaud-Larose-Faure	St. Julien
Gruaud-Larose-Sarget	„
Brane-Cantenac	Cantenac.
Pichon-Longueville	Pauillac
Pichon-Lalande	„
Ducru-Beaucaillon	St. Julien

Cos d'Estournel	St. Estephe.
Montrose	,,

THIRD GROWTHS.

Kirwan	Cantenac.
D'Issan	,,
Lagrange	St. Julien.
Langoa	,,
Giscours	Labarde.
Malescot St. Exupery	Margaux.
Brown-Cantenac	Cantenac.
Palmer	Margaux.
La Lagune	Ludon.
Desmirail	Margaux.
Calon-Ségur	St. Estephe.
Ferrière	Margaux.
Marquis-d'Alesme-Bekker	,,

FOURTH GROWTHS.

St. Pierre	St. Julien.
Branaire-Ducru	,,
Talbot	,,
Duhart-Milon	Pauillac.
Poujet	Cantenac.
Latour-Carnet	St. Laurent.
Rochet	St. Estephe.
Beychevelle	St. Julien.
Le Prieuré	Cantenac.
Marquis de Terme	Margaux.

FIFTH GROWTHS.

Pontet-Canet	Pauillac.
Batailley	,,

Grand Puy-Lacoste	Pauillac.
Grand Puy-Ducasse	,,
Lynch-Bages	,,
Lynch-Moussas	,,
Dauzac	Labarde.
Mouton-d'Armailhacq	Pauillac.
Du Tertre	Arsac.
Haut-Bages	Pauillac.
Bedesclaux	,,
Belgrave	St. Laurent.
Camensac	,,
Cos-Labory	St. Estephe.
Clerc-Milon	Pauillac.
Croizet-Bages	,,
Cantemerle	Macau.

XXIII: A LIST OF PORT SHIPPERS

Showing the Port Vintages shipped by each during the last fifty years.

1863.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Van Zellers.
Warre.

1864.

Martinez.

1865.

Croft.
Dow.
Fonseca.
Graham.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Tuke.

1866.

Martinez.

1867.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Martinez.
Sandeman.
Tuke.

1868.

Cockburn.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.

Mackenzie.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Van Zellers.
Warre.
Martinez.

1869.

Croft.

1870.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Warre.

1871.

Feuerheerd.

1872.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Warre.

1873.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Tuke.

1874.

Martinez.
Tuke.

1875.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.

Tuke.
Warre.

1877.

Sandeman.

1878.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Van Zellers.
Warre.

1880.

Graham.
Martinez.
Taylor.

1881.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Van Zellers.
Warre.

1884.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dixon.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Tuke (Lagares).
Van Zellers.
Warre.

1885.

Croft.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Martinez.

1886.

Martinez.

1887.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dixon.
Dow.

Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Van Zellers.
Warre.

1890.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dixon.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Van Zellers.
Warre.

1892.

Croft.
Dow.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Martinez.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Taylor.
Tuke
Van Zellers

1894.

Cockburn.
Croft
Delaforce.
Feuerheerd.
Graham.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Tuke.
Warre.

1896.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gonzalez.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Stormonth Tait.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Van Zellers.
Warre.

1897

Croft.
Graham.

Martinez.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.

1899.

Dow.

1900.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gonzalez.
Gould Campbell.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Stormonth Tait.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Warre.

1901.

Graham.

1904.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan
Quinta de Roriz (Gonzalez)
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Stormonth Tait.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Van Zellers.
Warre.

1906.

Taylor.

1908.

Cockburn.
Croft.
Delaforce.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.
Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Quinta de Roriz (Gonzalez).
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Stormonth Tait.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Van Zellers.
Warre.

1911.

Martinez.
Sandeman.

1912

Cockburn.
Croft.
Dow.
Feuerheerd.

Fonseca.
Gould Campbell.
Graham.
Mackenzie.
Martinez.
Morgan.
Quinta de Roriz (Gonzalez.)
Rebello Valente.
Sandeman.
Smith Woodhouse.
Stormonth Tait.
Taylor.
Tuke.
Van Zellers.
Warre.

XXIV : SOME NOTES ON PAST VINTAGES AND THEIR CHIEF CHARACTERISTICS

1847.

Very fine Ports, shipped by all leading shippers.

1851.

Good Ports, for a long time, but too hard and dry now.

1853.

Fine Port, but shipped by a few shippers only ; practically impossible to obtain now, but exceptionally fine.

1858.

A fine year for Port, Claret and Burgundy.

1863.

Excellent Ports still retaining their freshness and body.

1868.

Very fine Ports which are still full of sugar, probably better now than they have ever been, and never likely to be better

1870.

Some Clarets and Ports still good, but not nearly so fine as early promises had led one to believe.

1871.

The first growths Clarets of that vintage are excellent.

1872.

Some very elegant and pleasant Ports shipped by a few shippers.

1874.

Fine Clarets, some of which are still very good, and very fine Champagnes long since past drinking.

1875.

Clarets exceptionally fine and still in perfect condition.

Burgundies very fine, but, with very few exceptions, now too old.

Ports very delicate and fine, but more likely to lose than to improve.

1877.

Clarets very good, in parts. Some have now become hard and dry, but a few of the best growths (Haut Brion, Margaux and Mouton Rothschild) still very fine.

1878

A good all-round red wine year. Port, Claret and Burgundy of this vintage, if of any of the good growths and having been properly kept, should be very fine.

1880.

Excellent Champagne, the only exception in a year of bad crops.

1881.

Some good Ports, most of them now on the dry side, but very fine.

Burgundies which are now as good as they will ever be.

1884.

Some very good Ports are left alone to support the reputation of this vintage. It was a very good year in Champagne, but 1884 Champagne has long since ceased to be palatable and obtainable.

1885.

A few very good Burgundies.

1887.

Very good Ports and some fine Burgundies.

1888.

A few Clarets pleasant, but not quite sound. Some excellent Burgundies.

1889.

Some good Burgundies and exceptionally fine Champagnes.

1890.

Some good, sound, but not particularly fine Ports.

1891.

A few good Burgundies.

1892.

A few good Ports. Champagne was very fine in that year, but now too old.

1893.

A record year as regards both quality and quantity for Champagne, Claret and Burgundy ; wines were good, plentiful and cheap, but they matured quickly, and Champagnes are now past their best, but there are still many good sound Clarets and Burgundies.

1895.

A very promising and still more disappointing vintage.

1896.

A very good year for Port, which was shipped as a vintage by all leading houses.

1897.

Some very good wines made and shipped by a few houses.

1898.

A fair amount of promising wine made in most districts, but nothing of outstanding quality.

1899.

A very fine year for Clarets, as regards both quality and quantity. A limited output of very good Champagnes and Burgundies.

1900.

A very good year all round. Champagnes now at their best or past their best. Clarets ready for consumption. Ports rather forward and soon to be ready to drink.

1904

Champagnes very good and now at their best.
Clarets good, but not uniform in quality; require a great deal of discrimination.
Burgundies generally fine.
Ports sound and good, but not very fine.

1906.

Champagnes good and now at their best.
Clarets very uneven, but some good wines.
Burgundies a small crop, but a few good wines.
Ports, a small vintage, but some fine wines shipped by a few shippers.

1907.

Champagnes, a few good Cuvées, now at their best.
Clarets, a great deal of wine of fair quality, but none of outstanding merit.
Burgundies, small quantity, but some fine wines shipped.
Ports, a failure.

1908.

Champagne, a failure.
Clarets, nothing to boast of.
Burgundies, some very good wines.
Ports, some very fine wines shipped.

1909.

Very little good wine made in that year.

1910.

Practically no good wine made in that year.

SOME NOTES ON VINTAGES

1911.

Champagnes, very good and very fair quantity.
Clarets, good, but less than average crop.
Burgundies, small crop, but very fine quality.
Ports, small crop, fair quality.

1912.

Disappointing year all round with the exception of Ports, which were both plentiful and fine. Some pleasant Clarets were made, which are developing well.

1913.

Small crops of average quality.

1914–1918.

During the War, owing chiefly to the scarcity of labour and the high cost of fertilizers, crops have been very uneven in all European vineyards, and the gathering of the grapes has been effected under difficulties. This must be borne in mind when considering Vintage reports, which may be summarised as follows :

PORTS. Fair quality but small yield in 1914 and 1915 ; good quality and plentiful vintage in 1916 ; better quality but smaller yield in 1917.

SHERRIES. Fair crops as regards both quality and quantity in 1914, 1915 and 1917 ; very good crops in 1916.

CLARET. Yield below the average 1914 to 1918, but some good wines made in each year ; the 1917 wines show good promise of quality, and those of 1918 may grow into very good wines.

BURGUNDIES. Small yields have been the rule from 1914 to 1918, but some good wines were made in 1914, some exceedingly good ones in 1915, and it is hoped that some of the 1918's will turn out to be fine, although on the light side.

CHAMPAGNE. No good wines were made in 1916, but some very fair wines were harvested in 1917 and 1918. The best year as regards both quantity and quality was 1915. In 1914 the grapes were very fine, but unfortunately many were gathered too hurriedly ; nevertheless, some excellent cuvées were made in that year.

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